

MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW.

Editor: Prof. CLEVELAND ABBE. Assistant Editor: HERBERT C. HUNTER.

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The MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW is based on data from about 3500 land stations and many ocean reports from vessels taking the international simultaneous observation at Greenwich noon.

Special acknowledgment is made of the data furnished by the kindness of cooperative observers, and by R. F. Stupart, Esq., Director of the Meteorological Service of the Dominion of Canada; Señor Manuel E. Pastrana, Director of the Central Meteorological and Magnetic Observatory of Mexico; Camilo A. Gonzales, Director-General of Mexican Telegraphs; Capt. I. S. Kimball, General Superintendent of the United States Life-Saving Service; Commandant Francisco S. Chaves, Director of the Meteorological Service of the Azores, Ponta Delgada, St. Michaels, Azores; W. N. Shaw, Esq., Director Meteorological Office, London; Maxwell Hall, Esq., Government Meteorologist, Kingston, Jamaica; Rev. L. Gangoiti, Director of the Meteorological Observatory of Belen College, Havana, Cuba.

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As far as practicable the time of the seventy-fifth meridian is used in the text of the MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW.

Barometric pressures, both at land stations and on ocean vessels, whether station pressures or sea-level pressures, are reduced, or assumed to be reduced, to standard gravity, as well as corrected for all instrumental peculiarities, so that they express pressure in the standard international system of measures, namely, by the height of an equivalent column of mercury at 32° Fahrenheit, under the standard force, i. e., apparent gravity at sea level and latitude 45°.

NOVEMBER, 1907.

No. 11.

FORECASTS AND WARNINGS.

By Prof. E. B. GARRETT, in charge of Forecast Division.

IN GENERAL.

In November the great permanent winter area of high barometric pressure begins to build up over the interior of Asia. Barometric pressure also increases over the interior portions of Europe and North America. Over Bering and Greenland seas permanent winter areas of low pressure begin to form. In the tropical regions of the North Atlantic Ocean the weather is usually fine. In the Pacific Ocean area the typhoon season is nearing its end.

In the United States the Pacific coast wet season has fully set in. On the northeastern slope of the Rocky Mountains and in Arizona and New Mexico November is one of the driest months of the year. Killing frost is likely to occur in the Gulf and South Atlantic States, and light to heavy frost in northern portions of the Florida Peninsula.

In November, 1907, the Asiatic high barometer area began to build up rapidly during the second decade, and early in the third decade readings above 31.00 inches were reported in that region. During this period barometric pressure gradually diminished in the Iceland area to a reported minimum of 28.48 inches on the 22d. Pressure was generally low during this period over Bering Sea, and high over the Azores and Hawaiian Islands. This general distribution of pressure was attended by unsettled and unseasonably warm weather over the middle and northern latitudes of the North American Continent and western and northwestern Europe.

In the United States the first decade of the month was stormy. From the 1st to 3d a storm advanced with increasing intensity from the north Pacific to the north Atlantic coasts, attended by heavy rain generally over the eastern half of the country, and by gales on the Great Lakes and the Atlantic coast. Following this disturbance pressure continued low in the north and northwest, and on the 6th a barometric depression covered the country east of the Mississippi River, with a storm of marked strength central over Virginia. This storm deepened during the 6th and by the evening of that date had advanced to southern New England, where a barometric minimum of 28.90 inches was reported at Hartford, Conn. From the 1st to 4th severe storms were experienced over southwestern Europe.

The first half of the second decade of November was, on the whole, fair and cool in the United States. During this period a cool wave swept from the northeastern slope of the Rocky

Mountains eastward and southeastward, carrying the line of zero temperature into northern Nebraska, and the line of freezing temperature to the interior of the Gulf and South Atlantic States. Light frost was reported in the interior of northern Florida. During the last half of the month a succession of barometric depressions advanced northeastward from the Gulf of Mexico, attended by frequent and at times heavy rain in the Gulf and Atlantic States, by snow in the Northeastern States, and by gales of greater or less severity along the Atlantic coast and over the Great Lakes.

The month closed with rapidly rising pressure over the British Isles-Iceland area and falling pressure over the interior of Asia and east-central Europe. In the United States the so-called permanent winter high area had formed over the Plateau region, and seasonably cool and generally fair weather had set in over interior-western districts.

BOSTON FORECAST DISTRICT.*

[New England.]

The weather of the month was generally characteristic of the season, with the precipitation above the normal over a large portion of the district, and temperature near the normal or above. Snow fell in parts of all the New England States, with the monthly amounts ranging from a trace to 14 inches, the latter amount being at Jacksonville, Vt. Severe gales prevailed along the coast on the 6th and the 24-25th. On the 6th the high winds did minor marine and local damage, and delayed more or less shipping of all classes. During the storm of the 24-25th shipping was completely tied up throughout the coast. Vessels in Boston Harbor dragged anchor and there were several narrow escapes from collisions. The tides were the highest in many years, and hundreds of cellars along the water front and in lowlands were flooded, and much damage resulted. Seaside cottages and other property suffered more or less damage from the gales and the high water. The Canadian schooner *Cora B* was driven ashore near Gloucester; damage, \$20,000; crew saved. The schooner *Eastern Light* went ashore at High Cliff and was badly damaged; crew saved. The schooner *Lucy E* was wrecked near Duxbury; crew saved by the Gurnet Life Saving Station. According to newspaper accounts there was more or less damage to shipping along the entire New England coast.

Storm warnings were issued on the 2d, 6th, 20th, 21st, and 24th. There were no storms without warnings. The timely

warnings of the 6th and the 24th doubtless resulted in the saving of much property and many lives.—*J. W. Smith, District Forecaster.*

NEW ORLEANS FORECAST DISTRICT.*
[Louisiana, Texas, Oklahoma, and Arkansas.]

The rainfall was excessive and the temperature deficient. A severe cold wave, the first of the season, past over the district from the 10th to the 14th, when freezing temperatures occurred almost to the coast line. Timely warnings for frost and freezing temperatures were issued for the northern portion of the district on the 9th and for other portions on the 10th, 11th, 12th, and 13th. The warnings, which were widely distributed, enabled the protection of vegetation and the windrowing of sugar cane in exposed localities. Cold waves occurred in some sections without warnings, but the warnings for freezing temperature served all public interests in these localities. Frost warnings, which were partially verified, were issued for limited areas on four other dates. No general frost or freeze occurred without warnings. Storm warnings were issued on the 11th, 16th, and 19th, and brisk to high winds occurred during the display in each instance. No general storm occurred without warnings.—*I. M. Cline, District Forecaster.*

LOUISVILLE FORECAST DISTRICT.*
[Kentucky and Tennessee.]

During the month seasonable conditions largely prevailed for the district as a whole. In Kentucky the temperature and precipitation were both somewhat below normal, but in Tennessee these elements averaged nearly normal, except in the northeastern portion, where the rainfall was nearly double the average November amount. Clear skies largely predominated, being in decided contrast to last year.

There were six marked disturbances during the month. Two of these, the 1st-2d and the 30th, moved in from the northwest, while the other four—17-18th, 19-20th, 22d-24th, and 28th—were from the southwest, or west Gulf section. The storm of the 19-20th, which moved from Texas up the Mississippi Valley to the Lakes, was the most severe, being attended by heavy rains and high winds.

There were no cold waves, and no special warnings were issued, altho advice of decidedly colder weather was sent out the morning of the 10th.—*F. J. Walz, District Forecaster.*

CHICAGO FORECAST DISTRICT.*

[Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, and Montana.]

The month was characterized by a marked deficiency in precipitation and an unusual amount of sunshine over the entire district; the temperature was above the normal, except in the extreme eastern portions.

No cold waves occurred during the month, and there was no considerable fall of snow, except on the 30th, when a fall of several inches occurred in the western Lake region. Special snow warnings were issued for southern lower Michigan and northern Illinois.

The month was unusually free from severe windstorms on the Great Lakes. Warnings were issued on eight dates in advance of storms of moderate energy, and no casualties were reported.—*H. J. Cox, Professor and District Forecaster.*

DENVER FORECAST DISTRICT.*

[Wyoming, Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, and Arizona.]

The month was cool and generally dry. There were comparatively few marked changes in temperature. Rain or snow fell on but few days, and was generally below the normal amount.

No special warnings were issued. Moderate cold waves, without warnings, occurred as follows: Northeastern Colorado, on the 10th; central Wyoming, on the 19th; and northwestern Wyoming, on the 27th. These cold waves were not marked by unusually low temperatures.—*P. McDonough, Local Forecaster, temporarily in charge.*

SAN FRANCISCO FORECAST DISTRICT.†
[California and Nevada.]

This was the driest November recorded at this station during a period of fifty-nine years, excepting only November, 1890, which was without any rain over a large portion of the State. At San Francisco there were but three rainy days, the total amount being .04 inch. The normal amount at San Francisco in November, based upon a fifty-nine years record, is 2.64 inches, so that the deficiency during the current month is very marked. The chief cause was the presence of a persistent high area over the Rocky Mountain section, the basin ranges, and the Pacific slope. This has caused northerly winds thruout California and a large portion of Nevada, with cool mornings and high afternoon temperatures.

A number of frost warnings were issued during the month, but there were no injurious frosts, and no special warnings were necessary.—*A. G. McAdie, Professor and District Forecaster.*

PORTLAND, OREG., FORECAST DISTRICT.†
[Oregon, Washington, and Idaho.]

The month was uniformly mild, and the rainfall was somewhat less than normal. The center of a severe disturbance past over the northern boundary of the district on the 1st. This was followed by a long period without storms that lasted until the 19th, when disturbances again began crossing the North Pacific States, and continued with great frequency nearly up to the close of the month. Eight warnings for storms were issued, and with hardly an exception they were fully verified. The most severe storm occurred on the 25th, at which time maximum velocities of slightly over 70 miles an hour occurred at the coast stations, and the unusually high velocity of 51 miles was reported at Seattle, Wash. Notwithstanding the long period of stormy weather no noteworthy marine casualties occurred, and this of itself bespeaks the value of the warnings.—*E. A. Beals, District Forecaster.*

RIVERS AND FLOODS.

The stages of the rivers of the Mississippi system did not depart greatly from their usual averages for the time of the year. There was a fair rise in the Ohio River about the middle of the month. It past into the Mississippi on the 20th and reached the Gulf of Mexico about December 3.

The rains of the 6th and 7th caused a general rise in the rivers of southern New England and the Middle States, but not to within several feet of the flood stages, except in the lower Connecticut and Hudson rivers. Both of these rivers had been quite high as a result of frequent rains over the upper watersheds, so that the heavy rains of the 6th and 7th were certain to result in some high water. Warnings for the lower Connecticut were issued on the 7th, and on the morning of the 8th the stage of the river at Hartford was 19.7 feet, 3.7 feet above the flood stage. The crest stage of 20.3 feet was reached on the morning of the 9th, after which the decline set in. The damage and losses were trifling, as the water had not had an opportunity to recede greatly from the high stage of October 31.

Warnings were issued on the 7th for flood stages in the Hudson River in the vicinity of Albany. The flood stage of 12 feet at Albany was past during the night of the 7th, and by the morning of the 9th the water stood at 13.9 feet, 1.9 feet above the flood stage, and practically the exact stage that had been forecast. At Troy, N. Y., the crest stage was 18 feet, 4 feet above the flood stage.

Advisory warnings were issued on the 22d and 23d for a moderate rise in the Alabama River, and on the 23d for a similar condition in the Oconee and Ocmulgee rivers of Georgia. Warnings were also issued at the proper time for the flood that occurred in the Wateree River of South Carolina on the 24th and 25th, and for the flood stage in the lower Roanoke River on the 26th.

The heavy rains that fell over eastern Texas from the 15th to the 20th, inclusive, were followed by moderate floods in the rivers of that district, except in the Neches, and the upper portions of the Brazos and Colorado rivers. Flood stages were exceeded, but not to any decided extent, except in the valley of the Guadalupe and lower Colorado rivers, where the rains had been heavier, resulting in stages from 7 to 10 feet above the flood stages. Warnings were issued regularly from the 18th until the 20th, inclusive, and no reports of damage or loss have been received. The rivers of the Pacific States were quiet.

The highest and lowest water, mean stage, and monthly

range at 197 river stations are given in Table VI. Hydrographs for typical points on seven principal rivers are shown on Chart I. The stations selected for charting are Keokuk, St. Louis, Memphis, Vicksburg, and New Orleans, on the Mississippi; Cincinnati and Cairo, on the Ohio; Nashville, on the Cumberland; Johnsonville, on the Tennessee; Kansas City, on the Missouri; Little Rock, on the Arkansas; and Shreveport, on the Red.—H. C. Frankenfield, Professor of Meteorology.

* Morning forecasts made at district center; night forecasts made at Washington, D. C.

† Morning and night forecasts made at district center.

SPECIAL ARTICLES, NOTES, AND EXTRACTS.

PHENOMENA CONNECTED WITH THE SAN FRANCISCO EARTHQUAKE.

By Dr. C. M. RICHTER and Prof. ALEXANDER G. MCADIE. Dated San Francisco, Cal., December 28, 1907.

A number of phenomena have been reported in different publications (*Science*, *Nature*, *Gaea*, and others), as observed during and after the earthquake of April 18, 1906, which it seems to us need more accurate description and a statement of the facts as we know them, who were present at the time and made notes of them.

First, we may call attention to earthquake sounds. Such sounds were reported by many people after the earthquake. Many claim to have heard a sound comparable to an approaching windstorm or the roll of a heavy wagon; but in our judgment most of these sounds can be explained by the noise due to violent shaking of dwellings. There are, however, some reports of a sound like that of a violent wind preceding the first shake. We have no record of any detonation coming from the ground.

With regard to light and fire phenomena a number of statements have been made, many of which have been shown to be erroneous by "D. S. J." in *Science*.¹ Some of the most elaborate and detailed statements of such phenomena were given by those who were not in San Francisco during the earthquake.

We have no proof whatever that any particular optical or electrical phenomenon occurred preceding, during, or following the earthquake. The atmospheric conditions preceding and at the time of the earthquake are described in the report of the California section of the Climatological Service of the Weather Bureau for April, 1906. This report states:

The morning of Wednesday, April 18, was clear and pleasant over the greater portion of the Pacific coast. An area of high pressure was moving steadily and somewhat slowly eastward over Idaho. The weather map gives the conditions existing a few minutes previous to the great earthquake, and it may be noted that the pressure distribution is of a type that has been found to prevail when certain earthquakes occur in California. A study of the relation of atmospheric pressure and earth movement had been under way in the office of the Weather Bureau at San Francisco for some years, and while no very definite conclusions had been arrived at it was plain that the greater number of earthquakes in California occurred apparently without any relation to pressure distribution. It was noticed, however, that some earthquakes occurred during the passage of a marked high across the northern portion of the coast. While any relation of this character must be obscure and indefinite, it is conceivable that in a region where quakes and tremors of tectonic origin are frequent—i. e., a region where strata are in unstable equilibrium—the passage of an area of high pressure may directly or indirectly affect the stresses at critical times. The relation is involved and is alluded to here only because at Manila and Tokyo microseismic phenomena bear some relation to approaching typhoons. The thought suggests itself that the installation of seismographs on the Pacific coast may lead to the detection of advancing pressure areas.

A. Sieberg² asserts that "die Erdbeben die örtliche Witterung nicht beeinflussen", and later³ "Die Luftdruckschwankungen vermögen den Eintritt von Dislokationsbeben zu fördern". His material would rather favor a falling bar-

ometer as a causative factor. At the time of the San Francisco earthquake there was a well-defined high over practically the entire area of the United States. Similar barometric conditions had occurred at the beginning of April and at other times. The high of April 18 had no unusual characteristics.

Much has been said by various reporters about the high winds and marked indrafts of air due to the fire. It has been said that the strong winds caused by the fire were felt miles at sea. Concerning this, the best comment that can be made is that the instruments of the Weather Bureau were in place throughout the entire day of April 18. The Weather Bureau records are continuous up to 5 p. m. of the 18th, or, in other words, for a period extending thru the earthquake and twelve hours after the earthquake. These records are available, and show that there were no unusual features connected with air motion. The wind had been westerly on April 17, with a velocity of 14 miles an hour, the sky clear and the weather pleasant. A few minutes preceding the earthquake the wind was from the west, velocity 3 miles per hour, weather clear. At 5 p. m. of the 18th the pressure, reduced to sea level, was 30.15 inches; the temperature of the dry-bulb thermometer, 61.8° F., of the wet-bulb thermometer, 54.0°; and the direction of the wind, west, the velocity, 22 miles an hour. In brief, then, there was nothing remarkable in a meteorological way during the twenty-four hours under consideration. It was a pleasant spring day.

Some reports have been published concerning unusual clouds formed early during the fire and described as caused by the fire. One of the writers of this article photographed the smoke cloud as early as 8 a. m., that is to say, less than three hours after the beginning of the fire. These clouds were also carefully observed by observers of the Weather Bureau. They were, so far as we could determine, purely smoke masses, and the general elevation of the top of these clouds was probably not above 500 feet. Certain peculiarities have been reported concerning these clouds.⁴ Except for their size and density, we who closely observed these appearances at the beginning and during the whole period of the fire remember seeing nothing that can not be explained as smoke effects, such as a large fire would cause. While the appearance of the smoke at different hours was interesting, there was no unusual or phenomenal cloud development. So far as we could determine, there was no marked indraft of air caused by the intense heat. The lower air movement agreed with the usual movement due to the passage of an area of high pressure, the light north and northeast winds giving way to moderately strong west winds. It was apparently this change that prevented the complete destruction of San Francisco by fire.

There was no tidal wave or unusual disturbance in the Bay of San Francisco. As a matter of fact, the waters of San Francisco Bay were unusually calm on April 18, before, during and after the earthquake. In this connection it might not be

¹ Issue of August 10, 1906.

² *Handbuch der Erdbebenkunde*, 1904, p. 124.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 126.

⁴ See *Science*, November 14, 1906; *Nature*, vol. 74, 1906, p. 133; also *Science*, April 5, 1907, p. 554.

out of place to note that Prof. George Davidson has corrected a statement published in the description of the earthquake at San Francisco on February 18, 1856, where one writer states that "the water in the Bay of San Francisco rose, maintained its level for five minutes, and then sank 2 feet below its ordinary stage". Professor Davidson obtained a tracing of the mareograph from the Coast Survey, and this shows that the trace of the water level was remarkably smooth on the date in question.

Presentiments of the earthquake have been reported by reliable witnesses. Many people have stated that they past a restless night preceding the earthquake and were awake some hours before the earthquake occurred. Reports were also made of unusual manifestations made by animals. Our explanation of such conditions is that sleeplessness or unusual manifestations of the nervous system are not infrequent in California during the passage of a well-marked area of high pressure accompanied by low relative humidity and northerly winds.

Incidentally we may mention that the Weather Bureau records were faithfully and regularly made on April 18, the day of the earthquake. The great shock was at 5:13 a. m., and the Weather Bureau records are complete up to 5 p. m. of that day. The building caught fire on the evening of April 18. We lost three observations during the three days' fire, namely, a. m. of the 19th, p. m. of the 19th, and a. m. of the 20th. Our records begin again about noon of the 20th, while the fire was still raging.

THE CHRISTMAS SNOWSTORM OF 1906.

BY HUGH ROBERT MILL, Director of the British Rainfall Organization, 62 Camden Square, London, NW.

[Reprinted from British Rainfall, 1906.]

By Christmas eve 3,521 circulars containing forms for recording the rainfall of 1907 had been prepared for posting, tied up in bundles of 60 each, and left ready at 62 Camden Square, to be sent to the post-office on the appointed day. The assistants had left for their short and well-earned holiday, and there seemed to be a week of comparative leisure before us. On the morning of Boxing Day (1906) the whole neighborhood of London was found covered with 4 or 5 inches of snow, which had come down in the night, and at Mill Hill the circumstances were so interesting that we resolved to make a special and detailed investigation into the storm, if so soft and silent an envelopment could be called by such a name. The night of the 25th had been fine and star-lit, with white clouds appearing about 10 p. m. in the southwest, and at 11 p. m. no snow or rain was falling. Next morning, at 7 o'clock, the sky was blue and clear, the wind blowing cold as a light breeze from the northeast, and grass and trees were covered alike with a snowy fleece. There had evidently been a fierce wind in the night, for the snow was drifted deeply against walls and hedges, and plastered thickly on the southwestern sides of trees and walls; the northeastern sides were entirely clear, showing that there had been a shift of the wind to a diametrically opposite quarter since the drifting ceased.

Next morning the newspaper reports showed that the snowfall had been very widespread, and we sent the accompanying form¹ to the printer, in order to give all rainfall observers an opportunity of recording their experiences. By the evening the first batch of copies was received. It took the evening of the 27th and nearly all day on the 28th to get the 3,000 un-gummed envelopes loosened from their bundles, opened, the slips inserted, and the envelope flaps tucked in and made up again in bundles of 60. The 521 packets in closed envelopes for those observers who report monthly could not be dealt with in this way, so snow circulars for that number had to be separately addressed; but at length they were completed and

dispatched just before the closing time of the post-office on the 28th.

The number of slips which returned to us with information was 1,862, and we must regretfully acknowledge that we have not been able to do more than touch upon some salient lines of the information they contained. All are preserved, and we hope they can be further utilized. The storm was not the isolated phenomenon which the first newspaper reports had led us to expect. It was followed for several days by snowy conditions, and it was soon apparent that during the last week of the year there were two separate snowstorms, one on the 25th and 26th, which affected the west of Scotland and the whole of England, except the northeast, gently and with little inconvenience; and another on the 27th and 28th, which was very severe indeed in the east of Scotland, in Ireland, and the southwest of England. In parts of Yorkshire and the border counties both storms appeared, and in some of these places it is difficult to distinguish between them. The second storm was accompanied by strong electrical disturbances and a severe gale, so that the light, powdery snow was driven into enormous drifts, causing much distress to farm and village dwellers in Aberdeenshire and adjacent counties. Aberdeen itself was cut off for several days from telegraphic and railway communication with the rest of the country. A terrible railway accident occurred in the thick of the storm at Elliott Junction, near Arbroath, causing loss of life, and the storm was in every way one of the severest on record.

After a cursory examination of the returns, and the elimination of those the statements on which were too vague to be useful, we decided to deal only with the first storm, and to limit our work to a consideration of the depth of snow over the country and the hour at which the snowfall commenced. This storm was by no means the severest, and perhaps not the most widespread, in recent years; but the great quantity of data obtained from skilled observers makes it possible to deal with it more exactly than has ever been practicable before.

We have made many maps of heavy falls of rain, but it is a very difficult thing to map a light fall, on account of the uncertainty as to the date of entry by observers who do not consistently follow the rule. In the case of a heavy fall, the individuality of the day is so well marked that those who enter to "wrong day" are immediately detected. A fall of snow is much more conspicuous than a shower of rain, and estimates of the depth of snow, though individually less accurate than measurements of the fall of rain, may collectively give a good general account of what is equivalent to a light shower; hence one part of the value of studying snowfall.

Care was taken first to eliminate those returns which lumped together the snowfall of several days, and all the figures which belonged to the period 25-26th were plotted on a map on the scale of about 20 miles to an inch. The error in measuring snow may lead to over or under estimates, for drifting increases the depth in some places and diminishes it in others; hence it is to be expected that large figures will sometimes be found amongst a group of small values, and that a few small figures will be found in the midst of an overwhelming crowd of larger. But when, as in this case, the figures are very numerous it is easy to see and to ignore the minority of dissentient values, be they too high or too low, and we found it possible by following the majority to prepare a very serviceable map of the depth of snow on the day in question. This map we reproduce on a reduced scale (fig. 1). It shows in solid black those parts of the country where no snow fell; but there was precipitation on that day in the form of rain over the western areas at least, where the temperature did not admit of the formation of snow. The area of the snowfall is seen to be a zone (150 miles broad in the north and widening to 200 miles in the south) stretching from northwest to southeast from the north of Ireland and west of Scotland to the English Channel

¹Omitted in this reprint.—EDITOR.

and North Sea. The zone is parallel to the track of a secondary depression which crossed the British Isles on the 25th and 26th from the North Channel between Ireland and Scotland to the mouth of the Thames, the center being at the former point at 6 p. m. of the 25th, and at the latter at 8 a. m. of the 26th. The snowfall was heaviest on the left of the track, and although the distribution shows some irregularities which may be due in part to the uncertainty of the estimates of depth, it is plain that the heaviest fall occurred in a central belt (left white on the map) running from Manchester and Leeds to Lincoln and Ipswich. Here for a length of 200 miles and a mean breadth of 40 miles the depth of the snow everywhere exceeded 8 inches, while over nearly the whole of Norfolk and Suffolk the depth exceeded 10 inches, and in the center of these counties, over nearly 1,000 square miles, the snow lay to the depth of a foot. It appears to be possible that the snow of the storm which brought such heavy falls to the east coast on the 27-28th may have begun in Norfolk before the snow of the 25-26th stopped, and that this may account for the great depth recorded there. From the axis of maximum snowfall the depth fell off very quickly to the northeast, and extremely gradually to the southwest. It is interesting to note that the area of snowfall under 2 inches is greatest in the valleys of the lower Severn and Warwickshire Avon.



FIG. 1.—Map of British Isles, showing depth of snowfall of the Christmas snowstorm, 1906. Black areas indicate no snow (but possibly rain); shaded and white areas indicate snowfall, the darkest shading signifying the least depth.

In order to assist us in correcting the ordinary rainfall returns for snow which was improperly excluded, we prepared a rough map of the total depth of snow for the last week of the

year. This map showed three distinct centers of maximum snowfall in the northeast of Scotland, in East Anglia and in the north of Ireland. It showed an absence of snow around the Bristol Channel, and a curiously isolated area in the center of the Lowland Plain of Scotland between the firths of Forth and Clyde, where there was extremely little. That area, in fact, escaped the two great storms, while all round it the country had been visited by one or both.



FIG. 2.—Map of isochronic lines, showing time of beginning of snowfall, December 25-26, 1906. Black areas indicate no snow.

Maps of exceptional snowfalls have been made before, and a good example will be found in Symons's Meteorological Magazine for February, 1881 (Vol. 16, frontispiece); but, so far as we are aware, the rate of movement across the country of the beginning of a snowstorm has not been previously mapped with anything like the detail which has been found possible in the present case. The movement of a line-squall across the country has been traced on several occasions from a comparatively small number of observations, the correctness of which was guaranteed in most cases by barograph traces; but here we have had a very large number of observations widely scattered over the whole country. The time of the commencement of the storm was noticed the more carefully because it happened to be on Christmas day or Christmas night, but the exact moment at which the snow commenced could not be given in most cases. A number of observers in those parts of the country where the storm began at night were able to say positively that no snow fell before a certain hour, and a large number had taken the trouble to inquire from policemen, night-watchmen, and others whose duties afford opportunities of noting the commencement of the snow. When all the figures we received had been

charted the hour of commencement was found to be very distinctly later as one proceeded from west to east, and, although the figures were often contradictory, it was possible to draw lines that represent what may be called the prevailing hour of commencement. These lines are drawn in a somewhat generalized form, and it is possible that there should be more anomalous hours of commencement than those which are shown in the two small areas, one in Monmouthshire, the other west of Cambridge; but these were the only places where the weight of evidence seemed to us to demand exceptional treatment. (See fig. 2.)

Speaking generally, the isochronic lines ran from north to south, with a slight tendency to diverge southward; but it may be that they would be better viewed as concentric curves, perhaps portions of circles, the common center of which lay somewhere near the northwest of Ireland. The facts, as shown by the isochronic map, are that the snowstorm began in the north of Ireland shortly before noon of Christmas Day, or about six hours before the center of the depression arrived there, and that the storm began later and later toward the east and south, until it was after 2 a. m. on the 26th before it commenced at the mouth of the Thames, i. e., six hours before the center of the depression arrived there.

It thus appears probable that snow began in the front of the approaching cyclone about six hours in advance of the passing of the trough, and it appears likely that the snowfall lasted until immediately after the trough passed; but the hours given for the cessation of the snow are less precise than those for its commencement. At Camden Square the barograph showed that the trough passed about 6 a. m., after which the barometer began to rise, and the snow ceased about the same time.

The map shows that at noon on Christmas Day snow was beginning on the northeast of Ireland; at 2 p. m. it was snowing along a line from Islay and Kintyre to Larne; at 4 p. m. the snow reached Mull, Galloway, and almost the Isle of Man; at 6 p. m. it almost reached Skye, Glasgow, Dumfries and the coast of Lancashire; at 8 p. m. it was snowing from Skye to Manchester and thence to Cardiff and Bridgwater; at 10 p. m. the line of the commencing storm ran from the Tyne through Leeds, Sheffield, Derby and Birmingham, to near Bournemouth; by midnight it stretched from Goole to Brighton, and, sweeping over London, by 2 a. m. on the 26th, it ran from Hull through Lincoln and Cambridge to Dover. An hour later the storm had passed out into the North Sea, and the whole country was painted white from the Isle of Skye to the Isle of Thanet.

The rate of advance of the front of the storm measured by the commencement of precipitation was least rapid in the north, where it was $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour, and most rapid in the south, where it was about 19 miles an hour, but the rate varied a little from point to point. The interesting fact is, however, that a motor car could have kept out of the storm by traveling, without exceeding the legal speed limit, in the direction of its progress. At 8 o'clock on Christmas night snow was beginning to fall simultaneously along a line of 500 miles, this being the longest snow-yielding portion of the storm front at any time.

WELL-MARKED FOEHN EFFECTS WITH GREAT DIURNAL RANGES OF TEMPERATURE IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

By Prof. A. G. MCADIE. Dated San Francisco, Cal., December 2, 1907.

Some unusual ranges of temperature were recorded in California at the close of November, 1907. A well-marked foehn effect was noticeable in southern California November 29 and 30, and December 1. Maximum temperatures of 86° occurred at Los Angeles and at San Diego on the afternoon of November 29. On the 30th, maximum temperatures of 84° occurred

at Los Angeles and at San Luis Obispo, and 80° at San Diego. On December 1 maximum temperatures ranged from 80° to 85° throughout most of California.

The morning temperatures throughout this section were generally low, and at many places frost was reported in the morning. For example, at San Luis Obispo frost occurred on the morning of December 1, with a minimum temperature of 38° , which was also the temperature at the time of the observation—4:45 a. m. The temperature at the time of the regular observation preceding the frost was as high as 86° , and on the afternoon following as high as 84° . We therefore have a range of about 50° ; or, allowing 32° for the frost temperature, a cooling of 54° between 3 p. m. and 5 a. m., or about 14 hours. In my experience as forecaster on this coast I do not recall such a temperature amplitude. The frost deposit was probably not heavy; but we must assume that the temperature would have been still lower but for the latent heat of condensation of vapor to water and water to ice.

The illustration is valuable, we think, in connection with the theory of the nocturnal cooling of the ground and atmosphere.¹ The observation may be of value in connection with the determination of the coefficient of radiation of air. It may be assumed that the air was clean, free from dust and water vapor; altho a puzzling condition is that San Luis Obispo is only about 10 miles from the coast. The elevation of the thermometer is about 47 feet above the ground, and the elevation above sea level is about 200 feet. It would seem that under the conditions given, the heat waves—long wave lengths—past thru the air within 40 feet of the ground, with comparatively little absorption. The fall in temperature would seem to be a pure radiation effect and the illustration shows how very important radiation is in frost formation.

THE CENTRAL PENNSYLVANIA METEOR OF OCTOBER 1, 1907.

By Prof. HENRY A. PECK. Dated Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y., December 13, 1907.

The evening of October 1, 1907, Mr. Clayton B. Chappell and Mr. T. H. Parkhurst, seniors in the Syracuse University, reported that they had seen a remarkable meteor about 6:30 p. m. A few days afterwards some newspaper clippings arrived, showing that it had been observed over a range of territory that extended from Toronto to New York City. Meanwhile there had appeared in New Jersey and Pennsylvania another meteor of the largest size, which had attracted universal attention over a wide area. The Central Office of the Weather Bureau made a very thoro postal-card canvass of this region, the report of which will appear in a later number of the MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW. Among the answers were many that evidently referred to the earlier meteor, and it is largely with these as a basis that the following has been written.

Aside from the regular staff of observers of the Weather Bureau, the following have kindly furnished information:

New York.

Charles P. Arnold, Angelica.	O. H. Hauber, Ithaca.
P. J. Flanagan, Brooklyn.	Kenneth Baker, Jamestown.
Felix C. Moore, Buffalo.	W. H. Knapp, Jamestown.
Mrs. Wallace W. Jacques, Chazy.	Charles A. Hoag, Lockport.
C. E. Robinson, Clay.	Mrs. Eugene Buttrick, Lockport.
Mrs. G. O. Barnes, Cortland.	M. D. Clinton, Newark Valley.
Harold Henry, Dannemora.	William P. Ray, Olean.
F. J. Hill, Dryden.	Mrs. A. W. Ferrin, Preble.
Frank Fayent, Fort Plain.	S. C. Williams, Rochester.
Mrs. Nelle Sherman, Greenwood.	C. B. Chappell, Syracuse.
E. L. W. Smithers, Hammond.	T. H. Parkhurst, Syracuse.

New Jersey.

Samuel K. Pearson, Jr., Jersey City.

¹ See S. Tetsu Tamura, Monthly Weather Review, April, 1905, vol. xxxiii, p. 138-140.

Pennsylvania.

Welcome Richmond, Dixon City. Mrs. Malvin Edwards, Moscow.
 Ignatz Gutknecht, Dixon City. M. E. Hathaway, Scranton.
 Frank T. Swartz, Dunmore. Henry J. Hart, Scranton.
 M. L. Heisler, Harrisburg. Mary Parsons, Scranton.
 U. N. Steickler, Hummelstown. Howard J. Kline, Shamokin.
 Rev. J. M. Welch, Indiana.

Virginia.

E. T. Waddill, Roxbury.

Contrary to general experience, the point of first appearance of this meteor seems to be better determined than any other point of its course. Accordingly this point was first located by the method of intersecting azimuth planes from the following observations:

Number.	Place.	Position of station.		Azimuth.
		Longitude.	Latitude.	
1.....	Jersey City, N. J.....	74° 2'	40° 45'	n. 65° w.
2.....	Orville, N. Y.....	76° 2'	43° 1'	s. 30° w.
3.....	Dryden, N. Y.....	76° 18'	42° 29'	s. 30° w.
4.....	Shamokin, Pa.....	76° 34'	40° 47'	n.
5.....	Halifax, Pa.....	76° 54'	40° 26'	n.
6.....	Lockport, N. Y.....	78° 40'	43° 11'	s. 50° e.
7.....	Indiana, Pa.....	79° 10'	40° 40'	n. 45° e.

The point whose geographical coordinates are longitude $76^{\circ} 52'$ west, latitude $41^{\circ} 56'$ north, almost exactly satisfies these azimuths, the residuals in the equations nowhere exceeding the third place of decimals. A reference to a map shows this point to be south of Elmira, N. Y., just across the State boundary line and near Dunning, Pa.

Not all the observers estimated the angular altitude above the horizon. The individual results for the elevation at which the meteor first became visible are:

Jersey City	99 miles.
Orville	71 miles.
Dryden	50 miles.
Buffalo	98 miles.
Fort Plain	91 miles.

Average 82 miles.

The Dryden estimate is so lacking in harmony with the remainder that it has been eliminated, and throughout the computation it is assumed that the meteoric mass began to glow at a distance of 90 miles above the surface.

The observations of the end point are singularly deficient in altitudes and consist almost wholly of azimuth estimates. Together with this deficiency there is also a lack of definite data upon which to found a solution by the Galle method. The method that has been followed to find the radiant point is one for which the author is responsible, and, if lacking in the quality of mathematical elegance, it is quite practical when applied to observations of this character. The various azimuths and directions in which the flight had been observed were plotted upon a map. The result showed that many of these estimates were contradictory and indicated great confusion on the part of the observers. However, there are five of the estimates that lead to a very marked intersection, and the hints received from newspaper clippings originating in the adjacent territory show that it can not be far from the true point. These observations are:

Station number.	Place.	Position of station.		Azimuth.
		Longitude.	Latitude.	
1.....	Moscow, Pa.....	75° 33'	41° 17'	s. 45° w.
2.....	Hazleton, Pa.....	75° 59'	40° 59'	s. 45° w.
3.....	Dryden, N. Y.....	76° 18'	42° 29'	s. 15° w.
4.....	Roxbury, Va.....	77° 5'	37° 26'	n.
5.....	Buffalo, N. Y.....	78° 51'	42° 52'	s. 23° e.

From these we deduce that the end of visibility took place in the zenith of the point whose geographical coordinates are, longitude $77^{\circ} 10'$ west, latitude $40^{\circ} 5'$ north.

Assuming the earth to be a sphere and the radius of the sphere to be the radius of curvature for the middle of the arc, the distance between the points in whose zeniths the beginning and end took place is 132 miles, and the azimuth of the point of beginning as seen from the point of ending is N. $6^{\circ} 46'$ E.

As stated before, the notices received are very deficient in statements of the altitude at which the meteor was last seen. This was probably due to the fact that to most of the observers it seemed to pass below the sensible horizon. A Buffalo observer thought it was extinguished at 20° altitude, but this is certainly an error. Observers at Toronto, Syracuse, and Rochester reported that it past below the sensible horizon. This would mean a probable altitude of not greater than five miles. There is another indication that it was comparatively close to the surface when extinguished. From various places in Pennsylvania near the end of the track it was reported as a detonating meteor. The great noise was heard at Halifax, Pa., about two minutes after the meteor past. This indicates a height of about 22 miles above the surface of the earth at the time of nearest approach to the observer. If the path of the meteor be drawn thru this point and the place of beginning of the flight, it will intersect the earth's surface so near the place whose latitude and longitude are given above as to be within the radius of probable error. In the remaining computations it has been assumed that the altitude at time of extinguishment was not more than five miles above the surface.

At several stations far apart the remark was made that the appearance of the meteor suggested that of an ordinary paper fire balloon. From the comparisons made with the apparent size of the moon the mass must have had a diameter of about 500 yards. When more than halfway in its course, at an altitude of not less than 30 miles, it separated into four or five bodies connected by a ribbon of light. These separate bodies continued to follow one another in the same apparent path. This would seem to show that the mass was a somewhat diffused aggregation of particles that became disintegrated, and that the particles grouped themselves according to the resistance they experienced in passing thru the atmosphere.

In order to find the elements in space it becomes necessary to find the length of the flight. Assuming that the elevation at the end of visibility was not more than 5 miles, the length of the path was 160 miles, and the altitude of the beginning as seen from the end was about 31° . Several observers give plausible estimates of the time of visible flight. These estimates average five seconds, and thus the velocity thru the atmosphere was 32 miles per second. The true radiant, free from the attraction of the earth and the effect of its motion in space, is, celestial longitude $345^{\circ} 32'$, celestial latitude $80^{\circ} 8'$.

The meteor was traveling in a path that was almost perpendicular to that of the earth, the angle between the two directions being 94° . The velocity in space before it began to feel the attraction of the earth was 27 miles per second. This is so near the parabolic limit that I have contented myself with finding a parabola that satisfies the observed direction and velocity, with the following result:

Longitude of ascending node	= 187.6°
Inclination of plane of orbit	= 86.3°
Longitude of perihelion	= 25.9°
Logarithm of perihelion distance	= 9.989

ADDENDUM.

Since the above computation was finished I have received a report of observations from Mrs. Levi Mullian, of Hartstown, in extreme western Pennsylvania, which confirms the position of the end point as above deduced, both in azimuth and alti-

tude, and which, therefore, if it had been used in the computation would not have altered the result.

I have also received a report of observations made by Mr. George F. von Ostermann and Mr. H. G. McKim, at Spalding, Prince George County, Md., which harmonizes with the orbit as given above.

THE RELATION OF THE MOVEMENTS OF THE HIGH CLOUDS TO CYCLONES IN THE WEST INDIES.

By JOHN T. QUINN. Dated St. Croix, Danish West Indies, October 30, 1907.

The following is offered in continuation of the article by the present writer, which was published under the above title in the MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW for May, 1907.¹

In that article it was shown that Father Vifies's theory, that, at the cirrus cloud level, the current from the vortex of a cyclone spreads out in "a completely divergent radial direction", holds good only at comparatively short distances (say between 100 and 200 miles); but that when the distance is greater the outflowing current, as shown by cirrus clouds, appears to come toward the observer from a point more and more removed to the right as the distance increases. In other words, the vortex, when at a great distance, is situated not in the direction of the radiating point of the high clouds, but in a direction to the left of that point, the amount of the divergence depending on the distance of the vortex from the observer.

It seems advisable to make a few remarks as a sort of supplement to the above-mentioned article, by way of clearing up some points that were then left in a somewhat uncertain position.

(1) In the description of the movements of the high clouds over St. Croix during the passage of the Cuban cyclone of October 17, 1906 (page 218), it is stated that, "On the 19th they were moving from the north; on the 20th at 7 a. m. from north-northeast; on the same day at 5 p. m. again from north; and on the 21st from east-northeast".

The part of the above statement which is now put in italics is so put to call attention to the remarkable fact that the radiating point of the high clouds, after having continued its forward movement from north as far round as north-northeast, then fell back again to north. This was left without comment in the article, but was regarded by the writer as a very weak point in the evidence, since it seemed from this irregular motion that these high clouds were not under a fixed law, but were governed by a kind of waywardness in their movements. So far, however, from being a weak point, it turned out, as will presently appear, to be one of the strongest that could possibly present itself. This was discovered when the writer, desiring to find out whether this hurricane, on leaving Florida, went forward over the Atlantic, as the movements of the high clouds here seemed to indicate, or whether it went off to the northwest, as stated in a telegram received here, looked up the MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW for October, 1906, and found there (page 479), in regard to this great storm, the following:

On the morning of the 17th, reports indicated the presence south of western Cuba of a well-defined cyclonic disturbance, and at 11 a. m. of that date storm warnings were ordered on the east Gulf, Florida, and south Atlantic coasts, and the following was telegraphed to Atlantic and Gulf ports, and to Havana, Cuba: " * * * Disturbance apparently approaching western Cuba from the Caribbean Sea. Unsafe for vessels next few days off western Cuba, Florida, and south Atlantic coasts."

The center of the storm past near and east of Havana at 11:30 p. m. of the 17th, with minimum barometer at Havana, 28.86 inches, and by the morning of the 18th had reached a position near and to the eastward of Key West, where at 3 a. m. a minimum barometric reading of 29.30 inches was registered. Moving thence northeastward to a point about opposite the South Carolina coast, the center recurred to the westward, and was then forced southward over the Florida Peninsula by an area of high barometer that covered the north Atlantic coast districts.

¹ Vol. XXXV, p. 215-218.

The italics are the present writer's and are used to call attention to the striking fact that the cyclone center, after proceeding toward the northeast, paused and *went back to Florida*. This is just what the high clouds said it did. Precisely at the time that their action looked capricious they were closely following the law that appears to govern their movements. The cyclone advanced from Florida northeastward out into the Atlantic, and the radiating point of the high clouds at St. Croix answered by an advance from north to north-northeast; but now the cyclone, checked in its course, returns to Florida, and the radiating point of the high clouds at St. Croix thereupon falls back to the north. If we could fix the exact hours when the changes took place, both for the cyclone center and for the clouds, we should be able to tell just how long it took for the high currents to reach St. Croix from the vortex of the storm.

The notice of the storm from which the quotation is taken does not say what became of the cyclone after its return to Florida. According to the story of the high clouds, as told at St. Croix, it started once more on its movement over the Atlantic, and on this second occasion continued on its course for several days. If the high clouds were not on their trial, we might, after their accurate report about the recessional movement, take their word for the rest of the story; but as they are on their trial, all points must be supported by independent evidence. And as there is no evidence accessible, the latter part of the story must still remain unconfirmed.

(2) In the article in the May number it was remarked in connection with the above storm—

If it proves to be likely that there was a connection between the cirrus clouds and the cyclone in the above last-named case, then this connection existed at a distance of about 1,200 miles, the distance between St. Croix and Havana. That would be a very striking fact, if we could establish it.

Now it will perhaps be admitted that the remarkable agreement between the unusual movements of the cyclone center and the unusual movements of the high clouds, as above pointed out, amounts, when taken with the other facts, almost to a proof that the connection in question did exist when the cyclone left Florida and returned thereto. But the distance of the vortex from St. Croix must then have been about 1,100 miles, or nearly as great as the distance to Havana. Hence there seems to be strong ground for believing that the influence on the upper air of the movements taking place in the vortex of a cyclone extends even to such a great distance as 1,200 miles.

(3) In the same article, reference was made to some figures given by Mr. Page, in an earlier number of the MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW, concerning the direction of cirrus cloud movements at Havana, but as the said earlier number was not then at hand the figures could not be quoted. They have since been found in the MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW for July, 1904 (page 311). They represent Mr. Page's analysis of the frequency of upper cloud motions during hurricane months, as observed at Belen College, Havana, and are as follows:

Clouds.	Number of observations.	Percentage of frequency of movement from—			
		NE.	SE.	SW.	NW.
Upper	645	23	8	39	30

From this it will be seen that 69 per cent of the movements noted were from westerly points, while only 31 per cent, not quite one-third of the whole, were from easterly points, so that it is hard to see how Father Vifies could have arrived at the conclusion that there is a "superior general current which at that time of the year (the hurricane season) comes from the eastern quarter".

There seems to the present writer to be no evidence whatever for such a conclusion; but the truth appears to be that the normal direction of the upper current during the hurricane season, as at all other times, is from a westerly point, and that any deviation from this rule is to be looked upon not as a mere freak, or accident, but as a phenomenon to be traced to a definite cause—that cause being, at all events in some cases, the presence and progress of a cyclonic depression.

Since writing the article to which the above remarks are offered as supplementary, we have had in the West Indies another hurricane season, and, altho no hurricane has occurred among the islands, we have seen here in St. Croix, during the season, no less than eight deviations of the high clouds from their usual course. Some of these were thru south round to the northeast quadrant, indicating perhaps, distant storms on the Atlantic, passing to the north of these Danish Islands; while others were thru north round to the above-named quadrant and indicated, it may be, storms originating in the Caribbean and passing northward.

So far there is very little evidence to connect any of the deviations, or "excursions", as we may perhaps call them, with cyclonic depressions.

The last three occurred in the latter part of September and in October; each was attended by a small fall in the barometer, and each October movement gave a little rain to St. Croix, on the 10th and 20th, respectively.

These three "excursions" are dealt with in the local newspaper (St. Croix Avis) of October 30 in the following article by the writer, which may serve to close the present paper:

Those of our readers who take an interest in weather studies will remember that in the last number of this paper we spoke of three excursions which the point of origin or radiating point of the high clouds had made from its normal position about west into the northeast quadrant, one in September and two in October. They were as follows:

1. The first excursion—commencing from southwest by west, going round to northeast, and lasting from the 23d to the 29th of September.
2. The second excursion—commencing from south-southwest on the 8th (with a temporary excursion to south-southeast) and going round to northeast by north, and lasting from the 8th to the 18th of October.
3. The third excursion—commencing from west-southwest and going round to northeast by north, and lasting from the 19th to the 25th of October.

From earlier comparisons of high cloud observations with the known and mapped out tracks of certain cyclones, we believe that each of these three excursions means the origin of a cyclone in the Caribbean, its subsequent passage from that sea to the Atlantic, and its farther movement in a northerly direction over that ocean. Sometimes there are excursions in the other direction, namely, round through south and east, but we need not consider them here.

But how are we to know that these swings of the radiating point of the high clouds through north round to northeast have the meaning ascribed to them. Evidently we can only come at it by finding out whether there were any actual cyclones answering to the theoretical description. In each of the three cases now under consideration the movement appears to have been of no great importance before or at the time of leaving the Caribbean, for we have heard of no storms among the islands to the west of us; if there were any, they were not of sufficient force to be destructive, or at all events not to any degree that was thought worth reporting. They entered the Atlantic quietly, but it remains to enquire whether they were developed there. From the duration of the high cloud excursions, and the radiating point going round as far as northeast, we should infer that in each case considerable energy was developed as the cyclone traveled northward, but what evidence is there to show that such was the fact. About the third one we have as yet no confirmatory tidings; but it is now (on the 29th) only four days since the influence of this movement on the high clouds here ceased, so the case may fairly claim a little delay. We deal therefore with the evidence for the *first* and *second* excursions.

1. Evidence bearing on the first excursion. In the Avis of Saturday last (26th instant) we adduced the case of the schooner *Currie E. Bucknam*, which on the 1st of October, in latitude $37^{\circ} 44'$, with a gale blowing from northwest, appears to have had a cyclone center to the northeast of her. To-day we are able to bring what looks like fairly good evidence that a powerful cyclone passed up the Atlantic during the high cloud excursion which we now have under consideration. The New York Herald of the 1st of October gives some account of a storm which endangered the Atlantic fleet at Cape Cod on the night of the 29th of Sep-

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tember. It was a gale from the east. That it was part of a cyclone is evident from the reference to the fact that storm signals had been hoisted; and it seems likely that the cyclone did not come off the continent, but up the Atlantic, for a short paragraph in the same paper speaks of the fears of the Navy Department for the safety of the seagoing tug *Lebanon* and the *Gloucester*, which were on their way from Pensacola, Fla., to the Navy Yard at Portsmouth, N. H., where the *Gloucester* was to be repaired.

Cape Cod is in latitude 42° . In the September cyclone of last year the storm center had reached about latitude 32° when its hold on the high clouds here was given up. Cape Cod is much (say nearly 700 miles) farther away; but then we must remember that the storm center was not at Cape Cod, but some distance south of it, and that it may have been moving very fast toward the north.

From all which it appears that, while the evidence looks very promising, we can not make proper comparisons or make sure of the case till we get further details, which may possibly come to hand later.

2. Evidence in regard to the second excursion (the first in October). In this case we have as yet only one piece of evidence, namely the experience of the *Guiana* on her recent trip from New York. The steamer left New York at 6 p. m. on Saturday the 12th instant to come south; about the same time, or perhaps on the previous day, the cyclone left the Caribbean to go north. If they should pass each other it would not be surprising. Accordingly, Tuesday night was rough. A gentleman who was one of her passengers informed us that he came on deck very early on Wednesday morning and observed three things, a strong wind from southwest, a considerable sea rolling in from southeast, and a dense bank of clouds toward the northeast. The barometer had dropped to 29.60 and the steamer had been slowed down a little during the night. We can see at once that a cyclone with its center some distance to the west of the steamer (100 or 200 miles, perhaps) had passed during the night. When in the morning the wind was southwest, the center was away to the northwest. The sea which came rolling in from the southeast had no doubt been raised by the wind in the cyclone's northeast quadrant, and the clouds to the northeast had been carried there by the southwest wind. As the steamer came south the conditions became rapidly better till she was once more sailing in fine weather.

Thus it will be seen that there is some evidence to confirm the theoretical views about excursions numbers one and two, and we may hope to get more later. For any confirmation in regard to excursion number three we must, as already intimated, wait a little longer.

A METHOD OF PRESERVING RAINFALL.

By J. CECIL ALTER, Assistant Observer. Dated Salt Lake City, Utah, November 4, 1907.

On April 16, 1907, I placed 0.20 inch of pure olive oil on 0.20 inch of water in the regulation Weather Bureau pattern 8-inch rain gage—with the funnel receiver, but without the inner tube—and exposed the gage in the regular support alongside the tipping-bucket gage. On November 3, 1907, I measured the contents of the gage, which amounted to 7.77 inches after deducting for the oil and the original water supporting the oil. The records in the office, obtained from the tipping-bucket gage during the same period of time, indicated a total precipitation of 8.03 inches—a discrepancy of 0.26 inch, or about 3 per cent, which was probably caused in part by evaporation; for after light showers, which are so frequent here, many tiny drops of water have been observed to lie sustained on the oil for a considerable length of time before sinking.

This experiment has been carefully made, and the results may be useful in solving the problem of obtaining records of precipitation in the unpopulated regions of the West.

RECENT ADDITIONS TO THE WEATHER BUREAU LIBRARY.

H. H. KIMBALL, Librarian.

The following titles have been selected from among the books recently received, as representing those most likely to be useful to Weather Bureau officials in their meteorological work and studies. Most of them can be loaned for a limited time to officials and employees who make application for them.

Baden. Zentralbureau für Meteorologie und Hydrographie.

Deutsches meteorologisches Jahrbuch. 1906. Karlsruhe. 1907.

75 p. f°.

Jahres-Bericht... 1906. Karlsruhe. 1907. 116 p. f°.

Birkeland, B. J.

Neue Feuchtigkeits-Tafeln für das Psychrometer unter dem Gefrierpunkt. Christiania. 1907. 33 p. 4°.

Budapest. Observatoire sismique.

Rapport annuel sur les observatoires sismiques des pays de la Sainte Couronne de Hongrie. Budapest. 1907. 11 p. 8°.

Dellenbaugh, Frederick S.

The romance of the Colorado river. xxxv, 399 p. 8°.

Great Britain. Meteorological office.

Hourly readings obtained from the self-recording instruments at four observatories in connection with the Meteorological office, 1906. London. xiii, 197 p. 1°.

Héraut. Commission météorologique.

Bulletin météorologique. Année 1906. Montpellier 1907. 128 p. 4°.

Hesse. Grossherzogliche hydrographische Bureau.

Deutsches meteorologisches Jahrbuch... 1906. Darmstadt. 1907. [13], 59 p. 1°.

Hoyt, John Clayton and Grover, Nathan Clifford.

River discharge. New York. 1907. vii, 137 p. 8°.

Milham, Willis L.

Cloud classification. 9 p. 8°. Williamstown. 1907.

Rieffel, S.

Die Uhrenanlage der Hauptstation für Erdbebenforschung am physikalischen Staatslaboratorium zu Hamburg. Laibach. 1907. 12 p. 8°.

RECENT PAPERS BEARING ON METEOROLOGY.

H. H. KIMBALL, Librarian.

The subjoined titles have been selected from the contents of the periodicals and serials recently received in the Library of the Weather Bureau. The titles selected are of papers or other communications bearing on meteorology or cognate branches of science. This is not a complete index of the meteorological contents of all the journals from which it has been compiled; it shows only the articles that appear to the compiler likely to be of particular interest in connection with the work of the Weather Bureau. Unsigned articles are indicated by a —

American society of civil engineers. Proceedings. New York. v. 53. Dec., 1907.

Bruyn-Kops, J. de. Notes on rainfall at Savannah, Ga. p. 1101-1110. [Includes tabulation of all cases of excessive rainfall at Savannah, Ga., 1889-1906, inclusive.]

Electrical world. New York. v. 50. Dec. 7, 1907.

— Lightning protection. p. 1083-1084. [Describes recent forms of lightning arrestors.]

Geographical journal. London. v. 30. Dec., 1907.

Woolnham, R. B. Ruwenzori and its life zones. p. 616-629. [Includes notes on the climate.]

Nature. London. v. 77. Dec. 12, 1907.

— Experiments on wind pressure. p. 139-140. [Abstract of paper by T. E. Stanton.]

Royal society. Proceedings. London. Series A. v. 80. No. A 535.

Schuster, Arthur. The diurnal variation of terrestrial magnetism. p. 80-82.

Science abstracts. London. v. 10. Nov., 1907.

Wilkinson, A. Air resistance. [Abstract of article by Joubet.] p. 567.

Bornns, H. Indian Ocean meteorology and the southwest monsoon. [Abstract of article by C. W. Brebner.] p. 590.

Scientific American supplement. New York. v. 64. Dec. 14, 1907.

— Preventing frost on show windows. Cold-weather advice. p. 375.

— Electric waves in the service of meteorology. [Abstract of paper by Guillén-García describes the use of thunderstorm recorders in forecasting.] p. 382-383.

Stenzel, Arthur. The climate of Mars. Its effect on the habitability of the planet. p. 383.

Aérophile. Paris. 15 année. Nov., 1907.

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STUDIES OF FROST AND ICE CRYSTALS.

BY WILSON A. BENTLEY. Dated Jericho, Vt., May 28, 1906. Revised July, 1907.

(Continued from October Review.)

VIII.—CLASSIFICATION OF ICE CRYSTALS.**(67) List of types.**

There are at least five different and characteristic types among the nuclear or germ ice crystals, and two or three additional post-nuclear types. In general, if growth is allowed to proceed for a sufficient length of time, each of these various germ types passes thru certain typical and characteristic growth phases peculiar to it. All, or nearly all, when first organized, possess smooth edges and contours, but they subsequently pass thru the scalloped, the ray, and the branch-like stages of growth before completion. These various types, because of peculiarities of form and resemblance to the objects after which they are named, may be grouped and named as follows:

1. Lanceolate	Lance-like, MLA.
2. Discoidal	Disc-like, MDB.
3. Solid hexagonal	Solid hexagonal plate-like, MHC.
4. Flower-like	Ice flower-form, MFD.
5. Spandrelliform	Resembling a spandrel, MSE.
6. Coralline	Resembling coral, MCF.

Each of these respective types requires and will receive especial mention by itself in the text, in the order of relative frequency of occurrence of each in nature, so far as I have observed them at Jericho, Vt.

(68) Type MLA. Lanceolate ice crystals.

These lance-like or needle-like crystals are illustrated in

photographs Nos. 233 and 234. Some of the crystals are very long and slender and lance-like, others shorter and broader at the center than at the extremities, while still others broaden out so greatly at a central point along one of their edges as to suggest the idea that segments of disks had attached themselves to them. Perhaps those first mentioned occur most frequently. They usually form upon and shoot outward from some object, as from the edges and sides of ponds, brooks, and artificial receptacles holding water in process of freezing. Photographs Nos. 233 and 235 will convey an idea of their general aspect.

The very first ice crystals to form when water begins to freeze are almost invariably of this description. As these latter grow upon the surface, scallops and branches form and grow outward from one or both edges, as shown in photographs Nos. 235, 236, 237, and 238; and eventually grow in parallel rows downward into the water from their under sides, in the manner shown in photographs Nos. 239 A and 239 B. They are perhaps the main fabrics of the ice, as they alone merge and form ice films by themselves in addition to frequently combining with other types of ice crystals to form such films. The needle-like ice crystals that broaden out upon one edge at the center (see photograph No. 234) always form independent of a support in the free water, and proceed to grow in many cases in the manner shown in photograph No. 240, thru the formation of scallops around their edges. These scallops soon develop into rays and branches, and they pass into the branch-like state and continue their growth in a branch-like manner.

(69) *Type MDB. Discoidal ice crystals.*

These strange and most interesting crystals of ice come into visible existence in the form of tiny, round, thin, disks of ice of various dimensions, as shown in the photograph No. 241. Some seem to be perfectly flat, and others slightly concave. All are exceedingly thin, and when first formed look like tiny films or specks of oil resting upon the surface of the water. They vary somewhat one from another in size and form, and in the degree of perfection, or spheroidicity, of the disks. Ofttimes two or more crystals merge together while yet in the germ state and form many-lobed disks of irregular, unsymmetrical shapes. At this first stage discoidal crystals seem not to possess secondary axes and grow in a round and seemingly most uncrystal-like manner. But as growth progresses they soon come to the "parting of the ways", and grow differently. At this, their critical stage of growth, tiny scallops begin to form at certain equidistant points (six in number) around their edges. Photograph No. 242 shows them at this stage of growth. This is a most strange and fascinating period in their life history. Under the influence of continued cold and a more rapid rate of growth and of certain mysterious crystalline laws, seemingly latent influences become active, and they pass from the germ, or nuclear, into the mature, from the simple into the complex state of being; they acquire secondary axes, and grow afterward in a more truly crystal-like manner, and are more in accord with the hexagonal system of crystallization to which they belong. Scallops soon form around their whole circumference and grow rapidly larger, but those that first appeared grow much faster than the others. Photograph No. 243 shows them at this period of their growth. Eventually certain of the scallops push outward so far beyond the others as to give a star-like or flower-like appearance to the crystals, and they pass into the beautiful "ice flower" stage shown in photographs Nos. 244 and 245.

The next step consists in a marvelously rapid development of the six longer scallops or rays, which push outward far beyond the others and assume the role of primary rays; then follows the formation and growth of numerous secondary rays upon and around such primary rays. The beautiful appearance

of such flower-shaped crystals, or "ice flowers", is well shown in photographs Nos. 246 and 247.

The final and last step in their development consists in a continuation of the growth of the main rays and the formation, or multiplication and growth of secondary rays thereon. This stage is well shown in the beautiful branch-like crystals portrayed in photographs Nos. 248, 249. The crystals attain their greatest beauty and complexity at this point, and such as may have developed apart by themselves and in a symmetrical manner, often possess a beauty and complexity of form and outline rivaling that of many of the branch-like snow crystals which they so greatly resemble.

(70) *Type MHC. Solid hexagonal ice crystals.*

Ice crystals of this form differ little from those last mentioned, except that they possess hexagonal forms, having sharp or but slightly rounded corners instead of circular forms and outlines as is the case with discoidal crystals. Examples of this and other types of crystals may be seen in photographs Nos. 241 and 250. They pass successively thru the scallop, the ray, and the branch-like states of growth as do the latter, but unlike them, begin and conduct their whole growth from the very first upon the hexagonal plan, upon and around secondary axes, in a manner similar to that of the snow crystals. Owing to crowding and early merging together individual ice crystals of this, and indeed of other descriptions, are rarely permitted under natural conditions to continue development for any considerable length of time in a perfectly symmetrical manner or to attain a very considerable size. But under artificial conditions, such as may be brought about in the case of ice crystals that are allowed to form and to grow upon the calm surface of the water (as in a pail of water in process of freezing), individual crystals of this and of other types can be kept apart from each other and allowed to grow by themselves, by removing any crystals that form or float into their immediate vicinity. Under such favorable conditions, they can be made to grow and develop into crystals of large size, and of great beauty, complexity, and symmetry of form.

(71) *Type MFD. Flower-like ice crystals.*

This type of ice crystal seems to begin at once in the hexagonal star or flower form. These are quite tiny at first, and of simple form, the usual germ form consisting of a tiny hexagonal star with six leaf-like petals, like the smaller crystals shown in photographs Nos. 250 and 251. They rarely remain long in this form. Scallops and secondary branches soon form upon and around the edges of each of the six primary petals and they pass into the branch-like stage, as shown in photographs Nos. 252 and 253. This type of crystal also assumes elegant and symmetrical branching forms if allowed to develop under favorable artificial or natural conditions.

(72) *Type MSE. Spandrelliform ice crystals.*

These singular ice crystals vary somewhat in form one from another, even when first organized. Commonly one edge is straight in contour, and the opposite one curving. The two edges often conspire to outline a hat-shaped or spandrel-like figure. Photograph No. 254 pictures a typical example. These strange forms, like other types, successively pass thru the scallop and the branch-like stages of growth. Photograph No. 255 shows them while in the scallop stage, and No. 256 pictures one after entering upon the branch-like stage.

Singularly enough, quite a few of these and also some crystals of the needle-form type, shown in photograph No. 234, grow outward from the corners toward the straight edge, and assume a horseshoe or meniscus-like form. Photograph No. 257 shows a spandrelliform crystal that developed in this strange manner, while No. 258 shows a needle-form crystal, and also the spandrelliform crystal at a later stage of growth, after it had grown in the manner just described. Why certain

isolated crystals of these respective types grow in the strange abnormal manner shown in the photographs is indeed most mysterious; and the mystery is heightened by the fact that it often happens that crystals of both of the respective types under consideration form and grow in a normal manner at the same time and upon the same body of water as those that develop abnormally.

(73) *Type MCF. Coralline ice crystals.*

This graceful and elegant type of ice crystal usually, if not invariably, forms upon and grows out from some preconstituted nucleus, as from some one or more of the other types, or from some irregular discoidal crystal germ. In general the coralline crystals seem rarely to grow from mature discoidal, hexagonal, or flower-shaped crystals; they seem to prefer the needle or lance-form ice crystals, or the spandrelliform crystals, as nuclei from which to develop. Coralline ice crystals consist of myriads of rounded, convoluted, disk-like outgrowths, clustered one outside another in such a manner as to form graceful curving branches, greatly resembling certain forms of coral. Their whole development occurs in a sinuous and meandering, rather than a straight and regular fashion, and in this regard they resemble the meandering type of window-ice crystals. Why these coral forms should grow in this seemingly uncrystal-like manner, upon the surface of water supporting growing needle-like, flower-like, and hexagonal ice crystals side by side with them, all of them growing in a crystal-like manner markedly unlike the coral forms, is indeed most strange and incomprehensible. Beautiful specimens of this type of ice crystal may be seen in photographs Nos. 259 and 260. No. 259 formed and grew from a tiny twin discoidal crystal similar to the one seen at one side of the coral-form ice crystal.

(74) *Additional photographs of ice crystals.*

The author's collection of photographs of ice crystals numbers over 200 and contains many beautiful and interesting forms, in addition to those already mentioned. It is thought best to select a few from among them to use for illustrative purposes. These added ones are Nos. 261, 262, 263, 264, and 265. No. 261 shows an interesting specimen of a twin discoidal ice crystal at a second stage; two circular discoidal crystals united together to produce it. No. 262 shows a very interesting group of ice crystals of various types. It shows how ice crystals of various types, sizes, etc., form and grow at the same time, side by side, upon a given body of calm, freezing water.

No. 263 is a photograph of a lenticular body of ice formed by the freezing of water in a shallow dish. In this case the water was frozen rapidly, and the ice crystals that accomplished the work formed around the edges of the dish and grew inward; hence the so-called air tubes within the ice, instead of forming with their longer radii normal to the surface of the water, formed for the most part parallel to the surface of the water. The forms and arrangement of the air tubes within this lens-shaped body of ice are well shown in the photograph.

Nos. 264 and 265 show how environment and crowding impair symmetrical growth, and how the segments of neighboring crystals lying farthest apart from such crystals as may be in their vicinity are stimulated in their growth by the proximity of relatively large areas of crystal-free spaces of chilled water surface, from which to draw material for new growth, while those segments that lie nearest adjoining crystals are retarded and hindered in their growth by such contiguity, and by a consequent lack of extensive areas of chilled surface water (water molecules) in their immediate vicinity from which to draw material for growth. They serve to establish the fact that growing ice crystals, resting upon the surface of the water, at first draw but little from beneath the surface of the water to aid in their growth; but that they draw material

for their growth almost wholly from a thin film of chilled surface water.

IX.—HAIL.

(75) *Probable manner of formation and classification.*

It is well known that as a result of the action of certain meteorological forces and conditions, not yet well understood in all cases, a portion of the raindrops formed in summer during rain and thundershowers and tornadoes, and also in winter by the melting of snow crystals or snowflakes, is sometimes frozen in the air or in the clouds and converted into solid masses or accretions of ice called hail. In general, the forms, structures, sizes, degree of transparency or opacity, and presumable manner of origin of hailstones formed in winter vary in considerable degree from those produced in summer. Because of this, and also because in general winter hail is peculiarly the product of general snowstorms and of horizontal air currents, whereas summer hail is peculiarly the product of local rain and thundershowers and of violently ascending air currents, it is convenient and advisable to separate hailstones into two classes, winter hail and summer hail, according to the respective times of occurrence and manner of origin.

(76) *Cause and occurrence of winter hail.*

Because of its apparently greater relative frequency of occurrence, winter hail should perhaps receive mention first.

In general, winter hail is peculiarly the product of the eastern or southeastern segments of widespread general storms. Such storm segments seem to produce hail not always, but only in some cases. Whenever winter hail occurs the melting of the snow crystals, which presumably go to its upbuilding, is due to the presence of a warm but presumably relatively thin and somewhat elevated stratum of air lying between the earth and the clouds or between two low cloud strata. Such warm air currents almost certainly come from the south or east and flow spirally inward in a horizontal manner toward the centers of such storms between the colder air strata existing within such storms both above and below them. The melted snow that descends as liquid raindrops from the lower side of a warm air current freezes into hail while the drops are falling thru the cold substratum of air lying between the warm stratum and the earth.

Winter hail oftentimes occurs simultaneously over relatively large areas. In general, sleet or mixt sleet and rain precede and follow the occurrence of winter hail. Such hail usually occurs during southeast winds, when the temperature of the air at the earth's surface ranges from 23° to 35° F. The individual winter hailstones, tho occasionally of practically uniform size, in general vary somewhat in size and sphericity, both during a given storm and from one storm to another. Hailstones varying from one-thirtieth inch to one-eighth inch often fall together.

(77) *Structure and forms of winter hailstones.*

The interior structure of winter hailstones varies somewhat in different cases. All possess tiny air tubes and air bubbles, but some in greater quantity than others. Some contain but a few relatively large ones, others many small ones. Sometimes a tiny group of bubbles occurs clustered within their nuclear portions. In general, the larger air tubes radiate from the center outward. In most cases the majority of the air tubes are clustered at the center of each hailstone.

Winter hailstones assume various forms. The great majority are round, but some are egg-shaped, and pear-like shapes are not rare. These latter are of much interest. Pear-shaped hailstones are doubtless due to the fact that the larger spheroidal ones, because of their greater weight, fall downward faster than the smaller hailstones and the smaller undercooled raindrops, and hence overtake and merge with these. In some cases the tiny raindrops encountered are not too much undercooled to have time to spread around considerably upon

the hailstones before solidification takes place; but in others they are undercooled to such an extent as to freeze instantly upon impact. The latter cases presumably produce the pear-shaped hailstones.

The writer secured many interesting photographs of winter hailstones, and of sections of such stones, during the winter of 1906-7, a few of which are reproduced herein as illustrations. Nos. 267 B, 268 A, 268 B, 270, and 271 show the typical arrangement of the air tubes within the stones. No. 266 B shows a more diffuse and less common arrangement. Nos. 267 A, 268 A, and 269 A show whole pear-shaped hailstones, while 267 B, 268 B, and 269 B show sections of pear-shaped and oval-shaped stones under larger magnifications.

(78) *Occurrence and cause of summer hail.*

Summer hail seems to be peculiarly a product of violent summer showers, and especially of thundershowers and tornadoes and of violently expanding volumes of cloud-laden air. Newly formed or forming showers, or newly forming annexes to old ones, and those terrible rotating storms called tornadoes seem to be the principal, if not the only summer storms that produce hail. Unlike winter hail, summer hail occurs over very small areas and is a purely local phenomenon. Yet it frequently happens that hail occurs simultaneously, or on the same date, at various and perhaps widely separated points. Hence it may be presumed that in general the same peculiar causes that operate to produce hail within some particular shower of a series will operate at other points, and cause the formation of hail there also. In general the portion or segment of a given shower that produces hail is of relatively small area, hence the path of a hailstorm is quite narrow. Such hailstorm paths vary from perhaps a few hundred feet to as much, in some cases, as a mile or so in breadth. It seems to be the case usually, if not invariably, that the clouds extend to a very great height above the particular segment of a shower that produces hail. Probably in most cases such hail-producing clouds far overtop the surrounding clouds that produce rain only.

(79) *Usual structure of summer hailstones.*

Tho the individual summer hailstones occurring in the same or in different individual storms often vary markedly one from another in size and exterior form, yet in general their internal structures and appearances are quite characteristic and similar. The nuclei of most summer hailstones consist of whitish, more or less opaque and seemingly amorphous ice. In nearly all cases a coat of clear normal ice extends around and incloses the opaque nucleus, and, in the case of most large hailstones, many alternate coats or accretions of both clear and partly opaque amorphous ice seem to have been superimposed in alternate concentric order upon and around such nuclei. Because of this a cross section of a large hailstone presents a circular banded appearance. A great majority of the smaller summer hailstones are round, ovoidal, or pyramidal in shape. The larger ones are remarkably less regular in form than the smaller ones, and a larger percentage of these possess ovoidal, oblate, or irregular jagged forms. Small summer hailstones rarely merge or freeze together, but when, as usually happens, small and large ones occur together, the small ones frequently merge with the large ones and freeze in most varied order upon them.

(80) *Peculiar structures.*

Certain peculiar large egg-shaped and faceted hailstones possess such a post-nuclear structure as would seem naturally to suggest that the outer or post-nuclear portion was formed subsequent to the nucleus, as a result of the merging of many small hailstones. The absence of cavities within them, however, makes this theory of their origin untenable. Under the microscope the whitish, snow-like, nuclear ice and the concentric coats of post-nuclear ice are seen to be thickly threaded

by air tubes chaotically arranged, by icy nodules, and by granular fibers resembling those of which granular amorphous snow is composed, or such as would likely result were the fibers partially melted. The forms, locations, and arrangements of these interior air tubes and of the other features that resemble nodules and fibers of granular amorphous snow, correspond so closely to the jagged granules and fibers of which actual natural granular amorphous snow is composed, as to leave little doubt but that they have such a snow origin, and were inclosed and eventually frozen within a liquid coating of ice-cold water surrounding a pellet of granular snow, all of which may be said to constitute a raindrop of "melted snow".

(81) *Probable manner of formation of summer hail.*

Assuming this to be the case, hailstorms not only have a granular snow origin, but as growth progresses in cloudland they must repeatedly and alternately encounter clouds of warm mist and cold snow. If we may judge of the origin and formation of summer hailstones by what seems to be revealed or indicated by their forms, size, structure, etc., then it would seem that they are, in general, formed in the manner described in the following paragraphs:

(a) The nuclei, or rather what eventually go to form such nuclei, are first organized in the form of pyramidal or star-shaped granular snow, within the central and upper portions of very lofty, violently and vertically expanding, mushroom-shaped cumulus, or cumulo-cirrus clouds. The rapidly ascending air currents within the central portions of such clouds may expand upward in some cases as internal whirlwinds, and in others very strongly but without marked rotary motion; but their upward motion is assumed to be so rapid as to enable them to sustain and carry along upward with them all the raindrops and granular snow that come within their grasp.

The pellets of granular snow are blown upward and expelled or released from the grasp of the powerful updraft air currents only at or near the summit and spreading portion of a cloud. Once the pellets reach the spreading-out portion of a cloud, they are blown outward in a horizontal, rather than upward in a vertical manner; thus they lose their ascensional motion and begin to fall earthward. The larger pellets and the larger hailstones, caused by melting and refreezing necessarily fall first and nearest to the central vortex, while the smaller pellets are blown farther outward into the spreading portion of the clouds, and fall earthward farther away from the center. Many of the latter eventually fall as rain completely to earth at some point beneath the shower clouds.

(b) A portion of the granular pellets, however, and especially the large ones such as fall closest to the central vortex, as they fall earthward and become partly melted at lower levels, encounter strong horizontal indraft air currents, and are drawn by them again into the shower vortex, and are again carried far upward and converted into ice, and recoated with granular snow, and eventually expelled again, as in the first instance, from the summit and spreading portions of the shower clouds. In some cases, as when the upushing and whirling winds of the shower's central vortex are very swift, the hailstones may even once again undergo a descent and an ascent, as in the first and second instances. Or again, in their fall earthward they may encounter a secondary, newly-forming vortex, as an annex to the main one; and after being partly melted within its milder air, they may be carried far upward by it, again reaching cold, freezing altitudes and be once again frozen, before they become so heavy as finally to fall to earth.

In short, this theory⁹ assumes that, in general, summer hailstones begin as granular snow, and are melted or partly melted only by partial descent, and are congealed only thru

⁹ The author assures us that he arrived at this theory quite independently of suggestions from the very limited authorities and literature to which he had access.—EDITOR.

ascent within the clouds. The writer believes that the process of hail formation as herein described, or some modification of it, is capable of completely explaining all the various phenomena of summer hail. Surely powerful air currents or winds must blow upward thru and within hail-producing clouds to sustain and buoy up the larger hailstones for the length of time necessary for them to grow to so considerable a size.

[To be continued.]

THE WINDS OF THE LAKE REGION.

By Prof. ALFRED J. HENRY, United States Weather Bureau. Dated December 10, 1907.

All motions of the air depend directly or indirectly upon differences in temperature. Differences in temperature arise in several ways, mostly, however, as a result of the varying amount of solar energy received at the earth's surface in the various latitudes and the unequal heating of land and water surfaces. The temperature of the equatorial regions, for reasons that need not here be stated, is high as compared with that of the polar regions; as a consequence the isobaric surfaces are inclined toward the poles, and there is, therefore, a flow of the upper air from the equatorial regions poleward in both hemispheres, with a countercurrent in the lower air from the poles toward the equator. This interchanging motion between the equatorial and the polar regions is modified by the deflecting force of the earth's rotation, by differences in barometric pressure on different parallels of latitude, and by other causes which conspire to interrupt and at times reverse the general motions here indicated.

In the Northern Hemisphere, with which we are most concerned, the principal winds are (1) the northeast trades whose polar limits do not extend much above 30° north latitude, and (2) the prevailing westerly winds of the middle latitudes. Each of these winds forms an elemental part of the general circulation of the atmosphere, and is therefore controlled and modified by general rather than local influences.

The normal temperature gradient between the equator and the poles near the surface of the earth is the principal cause of the winds. It is subject to a rather large annual inequality—that is to say, it is strongest in winter and weakest in summer—consequently the winds, particularly of the middle latitudes, also show an annual inequality both in direction and velocity; and, moreover, they are interrupted by local and temporary disturbances in temperature which produce gradients strong enough to overcome the normal gradient for the time and place. These local and temporary disturbances occur most frequently in the warm season, when the equatorial-polar gradient is weakest; hence it follows that the winds are most variable in summer and steadiest in winter. Another cause for the general seasonal changes in the force and direction of the wind is the annual migration of the heat equator. The temperature differences which arise between the continents and the oceans, as a result of such migration, cause a corresponding movement of the lower portions of the atmosphere from the colder to the warmer region.

The meteorological stations in the Lake region from which the material for the following remarks was obtained are of two classes, viz., (1) the cooperative stations at which the prevailing direction of the wind by eye observations is recorded each day, and (2) the regular stations of the Weather Bureau where the direction and force of the wind is automatically recorded throughout each of the twenty-four hours. The Weather Bureau stations, with but one exception, are stationed along the Great Lakes. Since the direction of the wind is controlled at times by temperature differences that arise between contiguous surfaces of land and water, the local winds at lake stations may not always show the general movement of the air, but merely the direction and movement of the air within a narrow zone surrounding the lake. To meet this objection use has been

made of a number of cooperative stations situated at some distance from the lakes.

Winds of the cold season.—In the cold season, viz., from November to March, the winds of the Great Lakes are controlled chiefly by the meteorological conditions which prevail in the interior of the continent. The general drift of the surface winds in the United States east of the Rocky Mountains and north of about the thirty-fifth parallel of latitude for this period is from a westerly quarter; more specifically, the winds of the upper Missouri Valley, the upper Mississippi Valley, and the northern portion of the upper Lake region are northwest; in the southern part of the upper Lake region, the lower Lake region, and the Ohio Valley, west or southwest, and in the Middle Atlantic States, northwest. The mean path of the prevailing winds¹ in these regions in winter is shown in fig. 1, No. 1.

As the meridional altitude of the sun increases, the thermal conditions which prevailed over the continent in winter become reversed; the interior becomes warmer than the oceans on the same parallels of latitude on both the east and west coasts and the Gulf of Mexico on the south. The consequence is, as pointed out by Ferrel,² the air over the interior of the continent becomes more rare than over the oceans, rises and flows out in all directions above; while the barometric pressure is diminished, and there is an inflow below from all sides to take its place. The effect of this general warming up is not sufficiently strong, however, completely to overcome and reverse the generally eastward drift of the atmosphere in these latitudes, but it is sufficiently powerful when the pressure gradients are weak to control the direction of the winds; hence, in the transitory months of spring and early summer the winds come alternately under the influence of (1) steep temperature and pressure gradients caused by the lingering cold of the continental interior, and (2) increasing solar radiation. The effect of the latter is seen mainly during intervals of clear weather and diminishing winds, which follow the passage of an area of high pressure and cold weather. As a consequence the winds of spring are more variable than those of winter, as may be seen from fig. 1, No. 2, where are charted the prevailing winds of spring.

An interesting fact in connection with the winds of spring is the beginning of what appears to be a slight monsoon influence on Lake Michigan, viz., onshore winds from April to September of each year, due in part, it is believed, to the difference of temperature which prevails between the lake surface and contiguous land surfaces, and in part to the prevailing pressure distribution in the late spring months.

The prevailing winds on the southwest shore of the lake, as may be seen from the data for Chicago, Table 1, are northeast from April to September; on the west shore, as at Milwaukee, northeast for April and May, and southeast from June to August, or from the lake to the land in both cases. At Escanaba, on Green Bay, the prevailing winds are northerly until May, then southerly from May to October, both inclusive. The prevailing winds at Grand Haven, the only available station on the east shore, are easterly in April and southwesterly from May to September, with, however, a large percentage of northwesterly winds in July and August. Thus it will be seen

¹ The term "prevailing" unfortunately does not afford any indication of the relative frequency of the winds so designated. If the wind blew an equal number of times from each of the eight principal points of the compass, it would be said to have no prevailing direction, there being 12.5 per cent from each direction. If, on the other hand, it had blown as much as 13 per cent from any direction, that direction would be designated as the prevailing one. The term "prevailing" may, therefore, indicate winds of frequency ranging between 13 and 100 per cent. In Table 1 is given the percentage of wind from each of the eight principal points of the compass as determined hourly by automatically recording instruments.

² See "A Popular Treatise on the Winds".

that for the summer months, as graphically shown in fig. 1, No. 3, the winds are generally onshore. These onshore winds form about 20 per cent of the total winds observed. They prevail at times when the pressure gradients are weak, and subside as soon as stronger gradients appear. This exception should be noted. A pressure gradient that will produce a land wind on the west shore of the lake produces a lake wind on the east shore. The former are produced chiefly by the slow eastward drift of areas of high pressure across the Lake region in which the seat of greatest cold and highest pressure is found

in August, and to zero in October. In November the water temperatures along the shore are about 6° warmer than the corresponding air temperatures.

On the west shore of Lake Michigan the difference between land and lake temperatures is greatest in June and July, when it amounts to about 8° at Chicago, over 10° at Milwaukee, and about 6° at the Straits of Mackinaw. The difference diminishes steadily until October, when the water is warmer than the air at the Straits of Mackinaw, but still colder than the air over the southern and central portions of

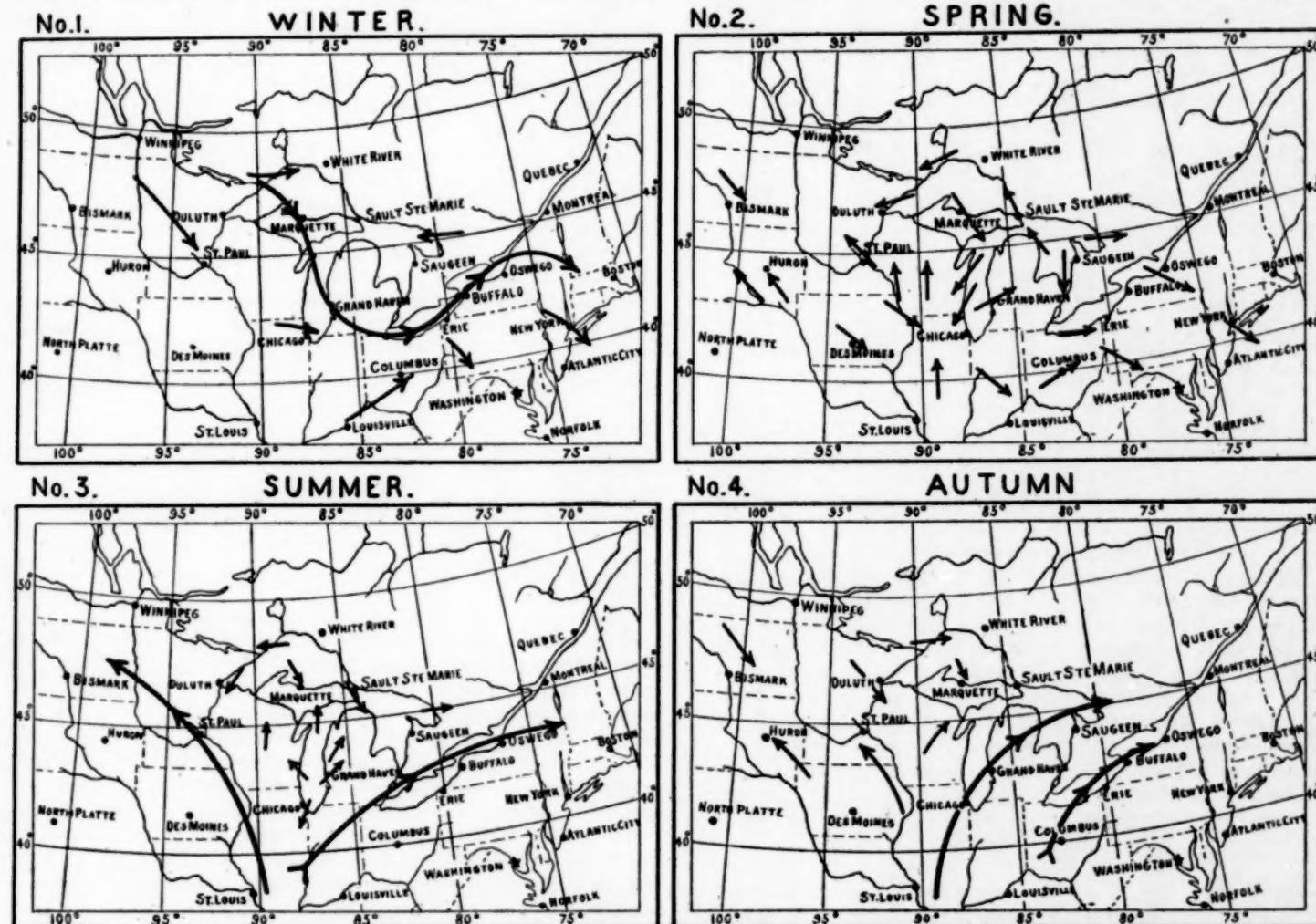


FIG. 1.—Prevailing winds of the Lake region at different seasons.

to the northward of the Lake region. The movement of the northern portion of the respective highs is a trifle faster than that of the southern portion, and the longer axis of the high therefore assumes a north-northeast to south-southwest direction, which, it may be recalled, produces a steady northeast wind over the Lake region, and this wind will continue day and night so long as the pressure distribution is favorable. The lake wind, on the other hand, is the result of diurnal changes in temperature coupled with favorable pressure distribution, as will be explained in the following paragraphs.

In Table 3 is given the average difference between the surface air and water temperatures at several stations along the Great Lakes. The period of observation was about five years in length, and the temperatures of both air and water were observed at the same moment of time.

These data show that the greatest differences between air and water temperatures are found along Lake Superior, where they amount to about 10° on the average for the months of May to July, inclusive, diminishing to about half that amount

the lake. In November the surface waters at Milwaukee are warmer than the air, while at Chicago they are nearly equal.

At Grand Haven, on the east shore, the surface waters from May to October appear to be a little warmer than the air; The observations were made, however, in the river rather than along the lake shore, and they may not accurately represent the temperature of the lake waters; nevertheless there does not appear to be any doubt as to the main fact shown by these observations, viz., that the water along the eastern shore is warmer than it is along the western shore.

The observations for Lake Huron were made at Alpena, a station on Thunder Bay. The differences here are uniformly small, perhaps due to poor circulation of water between the bay and the lake.

On Lake Erie there is a difference of about 5° during April, May, and June between the temperature of the air and the water along the shore, judging from the observations at Cleveland. For July, August, and September the air and lake temperatures are nearly the same, but in October

TABLE 1.—*Percentage of frequency of wind from the eight principal points of the compass (by the hourly records of self registers.)*

[†] Unfortunately the detailed records from self-registers at these stations were not tabulated after 1895.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage of westerly and easterly winds in the Lake region.*
 (From Table 1.)

Station and direction.	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Year.
St. Paul, Minn.:					
Westerly.....	5	5	5	5	5
Easterly.....	57	40	42	44	46
Duluth, Minn.:					
Westerly.....	26	39	34	32	33
Marquette, Mich.:					
Westerly.....	64	30	38	53	46
Easterly.....	18	55	44	30	37
Milwaukee, Wis.:					
Westerly.....	66	45	47	55	53
Easterly.....	13	26	27	20	21
Chicago, Ill.:					
Westerly.....	67	38	35	52	48
Easterly.....	17	45	45	24	33
Grand Haven, Mich.:					
Westerly.....	59	33	33	43	42
Easterly.....	18	40	46	27	33
Alpena, Mich.:					
Westerly.....	48	45	58	48	50
Easterly.....	35	38	26	34	33
Detroit, Mich.:					
Westerly.....	63	41	44	57	51
Easterly.....	18	40	40	25	31
Buffalo, N. Y.:					
Westerly.....	67	45	49	56	54
Easterly.....	18	38	33	24	28

TABLE 3.—*Differences between air and water temperature in the Lake region.*
 (Averages of about five years.)
 (“+” = air warmer than water; “-” = water warmer than air.)

and November the lake water is somewhat warmer than the air. Observations made at Sandusky and Toledo both show less variation than at Cleveland, but, as at Alpena, the difference may be ascribed to local causes.

All water temperatures here mentioned refer to the temperature as determined along the shore, generally in shallow water. The temperature of the surface water in mid-lake is known to be considerably lower, especially on Lake Superior.

known to be considerably lower, especially on Lake Superior.

Since the surface layers of air over the Great Lakes take their temperature largely from that of the water with which they are immediately in contact, there must be a comparatively shallow body of relatively cold air overlying each of the larger lakes, corresponding to the area of low water temperature in mid-lake. The central portion of this mass of cooler air, in the absence of strong pressure gradients, must be a region of calms or light airs, while the air near shore, being subject to the control exercised by the diurnal contrasts in temperature over the land, the latter being greater than over the lake, must tend to move from the lake toward the land in response to the gradient. The winds thus created are known as lake winds. They arise mostly in the forenoon hours of tranquil summer days and continue for a few hours after sunset, when they shift to a land quarter.

The lake winds thus described are confined mostly to the west shore of Lake Michigan, where it may be remembered the prevailing wind at land stations is in a contrary direction, viz. from southwest to south.

viz., from southwest to south.

The temperature gradients that will produce an easterly wind on the western shore of Lake Michigan, on the hypothesis of a region of relatively cool air in mid-lake, will produce a westerly wind along the east shore of the lake, and this local and temporary influence, uniting with the forces which maintain the general circulation of the atmosphere in the latitudes

of the Lake region, will cause an excess of westerly winds along the eastern shore as compared with the western shore. (Compare the summer winds at Milwaukee and Grand Haven, Table 2. See also the record for Parry Sound.)

The winds of summer.—In summer the prevailing winds of the Lake region are southwest to south, except on Lake Superior, where the direction seems to be controlled by local causes. The northeast winds of spring along the northwest shore of that lake from Duluth to Port Arthur continue well into the summer. The winds along the south shore are generally northwest.

The southerly winds of the lower Mississippi Valley apparently divide into two branches in late spring, one branch forming the southeast winds of summer in the Missouri Valley and the Plains, the other the southwest winds of the Ohio Valley and the lower Lakes.

The temperature of the surface waters of the Great Lakes reaches a maximum on lakes Erie and Ontario in July; on the larger lakes, Michigan, Huron, and Superior, the maximum is deferred until August. The closest agreement between air and water temperatures occurs in October.

The winds of autumn.—The autumn, as a whole, is a season of diminished temperature contrasts between land and lake surfaces, respectively, and accordingly we find that the lakes exert the minimum effect upon the direction of the winds at this season of the year. In autumn southerly winds reach their farthest northing, extending well into the Lake Superior region and the Province of Ontario to the northward. In November there is a sharp change in the direction of the wind in northern Wisconsin and the upper portion of the Lower Michigan Peninsula. In this territory northwesterly winds gain the ascendancy and maintain it throughout the winter. In the southern portion of the Lake region the winds in November become westerly and hold that direction until the succeeding spring.

One other point remains to be mentioned, viz., the probable effect of the contour of the several lake basins on the direction of the wind. The tendency of the surface winds to follow the course of a valley is well known. The lower Lakes, together with their connecting rivers, form a great shallow depression, which, on account of the diminished friction afforded by the water surfaces, must provide an easy path for the winds—a path, moreover, which it seems probable all winds between west and north follow unless compelled by strong pressure and temperature gradients to cross the lakes obliquely.

The average hourly velocity.—The average hourly velocity of the wind in the Lake region on the mean of the year is about 10 miles an hour. The wind velocity during the twenty-four hours is not constant, but increases from a minimum in the early morning to a maximum in the afternoon at about the same time that the maximum temperature occurs; indeed the resemblance between the curves showing the daily march of the temperature and the daily increase in the wind velocity is quite marked.

The wind in autumn and winter is above the daily average about eight hours out of the twenty-four and below the remainder of the time. In spring and summer it is above the daily average about ten hours out of the twenty-four and below the remaining fourteen hours.

The periodic diurnal range of the velocity of the wind is least in winter and greatest in spring and summer; thus the average range at six stations for January is 2 miles; for April 4.5 miles; for July 4.6 miles; and for October 3.4 miles. Another way of expressing this fact is to say that the winds of winter are steadier than those of spring and summer in the sense that the day and night winds are nearly equal in force. In the summer the winds of the nighttime fall as much as 4 or 5 miles an hour, on the average, below those of the afternoon.

The diurnal period of the winds at Marquette and Cleveland differs from that of other stations in that the daily minimum falls in the early evening hours instead of the early morning hours. At Marquette the minimum wind force of the day is experienced at about 5 p. m. in January; 9 p. m. in April; 8 p. m. in July; and 6 p. m. in October. At Cleveland the minimum occurs at 6 p. m. in January; at 7 p. m. in April; at 8 p. m. in July; and at 6 p. m. in October. The Marquette station also shows a prominent increase from the evening minimum to the secondary maximum in the early morning hours, a feature not generally observed elsewhere. The early minimum at Marquette is well marked, the average difference between it and the morning secondary minimum in July being about 3 miles. Its cause is not clearly understood.

The wind velocities given in Table 4 are subject to a correction for the varying altitude of the anemometers above the surface of the ground. In general, the greater the height the greater the velocity, other things being equal, but thus far no satisfactory correction for altitude has been determined.

TABLE 4.—*Average hourly wind velocity in the Lake region, in miles and tenths per hour.*

(For the period 1891-95.)

Station.	January.			April.			July.			October.			Year.		
	Highest.	Lowest.	Mean.												
St. Paul, Minn.	8.7	6.1	7.4	11.5	7.1	8.9	9.3	4.4	6.5	10.4	6.4	7.9	9.9	6.1	7.6
Marquette, Mich.	10.7	8.8	10.0	12.6	7.5	9.7	10.5	5.3	8.6	13.5	10.4	11.7	11.8	8.6	10.2
Chicago, Ill.	18.9	16.3	17.7	20.9	17.6	18.9	19.15	5.12	3.14	0.18	9.16	4.17	4.18	6.16	5.17
Detroit, Mich.	13.1	10.4	11.8	14.5	9.8	11.7	12.2	6.9	8.9	13.8	9.9	11.1	13.4	9.4	10.9
Cleveland, Ohio.	13.1	11.6	12.3	13.9	9.7	11.3	11.8	7.7	9.5	14.3	11.2	13.0	13.7	10.4	11.9
Buffalo, N. Y.	14.8	12.9	13.8	18.1	8.8	10.5	12.7	6.9	9.4	13.9	10.7	12.1	13.4	10.2	11.4

The significance of the figures of wind velocities, given in Table 4, is as follows: In the column headed "highest" the figures represent the average for that one of the afternoon hours which gives the highest value; and, conversely, the figures under the column headed "lowest" express the average for that one of the night hours which gives the lowest value. The values under the column headed "mean" are the arithmetical means of all of the hourly readings in the month, 744 in the case of a 31-day month, etc.

The elevations of the anemometers above the ground during the period of observations, 1891-95, were as follows:

Station.	Height above ground Jan. 1, 1891.	Subsequent changes.	
		Feet.	
Buffalo, N. Y.	108		Increased to 123 feet October 7, 1895.
Chicago, Ill.	272		Increased to 274 feet October 15, 1892.
Cleveland, Ohio.	168		Increased to 130 feet April 8, 1892.
Detroit, Mich.	158		Increased to 161 feet July 31, 1891.
Marquette, Mich.	95		No change.
St. Paul, Minn.	124		No change.

The wind movement is greatest on the average in spring and autumn, altho high single velocities, or squall winds, may occur in any month of the year. Table 5 contains a list of high wind velocities recorded in the Lake region within the season of navigation during the last thirty-six years.

High winds in the Lake region.—A cursory examination of Table 5 brings out the important fact that the storm winds of the Great Lakes, for a single season, are largely sporadic, and in general not confined to any particular quarter, altho, as a rule, westerly winds predominate. The storms which produce high winds in the Lake region may be divided into three main groups. In the first group may be included all storms whose centers move eastward north of Lake Superior; in the second may be included storms which approach the Lake region from the south or southwest, or whose centers approach from the west, but south of Lake Superior; and, finally, in the last group

TABLE 5.—Maximum wind velocities (in miles per hour) in the Lake region during season of navigation.

Station and period of record.	April.				May.				June.				July.				August.				September.				October.				November.			
	Velocity.	Direction.	Year.	Date.	Velocity.	Direction.	Year.	Date.	Velocity.	Direction.	Year.	Date.	Velocity.	Direction.	Year.	Date.																
Lake Superior.																																
Duluth (1871-06)...	60	n.w.	1877	20	60	n.e.	1877	20	63	n.e.	1904	3	48	n.w.	1897*	2	51	n.w.	1904	19	78	n.e.	1881	16	55	n.e.	1896	30	70	n.w.	1905	24
Marquette (1871-06)...	49	w.	1891	30	52	s.e.	1896*	25	45	s.e.	1899	13	68	s.w.	1901	20	48	s.w.	1890	2	61	s.	1893	21	48	s.w.	1905	7	48	s.w.	1894	14
S.Ste.Marie(1888-06)	60	se.	1893	20	50	s.e.	1892	18	45	n.w.	1898	1	42	n.w.	1898	28	50	n.w.	1897*	29	56	n.w.	1904	30	50	n.w.	1893	14	52	n.w.	1896	18
Lake Michigan.																																
Milwaukee (1871-06)...	54	sw.	1878	10	49	s.e.	1896	25	60	sw.	1880	4	60	sw.	1874	24	52	w.	1896	9	48	w.	1890	20	60	sw.	1880	16	55	se.	1906	16
Chicago (1871-06)...	72	n.e.	1893	20	62	e.	1894	18	72	n.w.	1892	13	72	w.	1897	5	72	s.w.	1898	16	72	s.w.	1900	11	63	s.e.	1898	19	76	s.	1898	7
Escanaba (1871-06)...	48	n.	1878*	10	40	w.	1906	31	40	s.	1876	18	37	n.w.	1901	20	44	n.	1875	20	46	w.	1906	11	45	s.w.	1880	16	60	n.	1877	8
Lake Huron.																																
Alpena (1873-06)...	49	n.w.	1893	4	44	n.w.	1905	9	48	w.	1881	13	60	sw.	1875	15	41	n.w.	1901	29	48	w.	1884	10	52	e.	1905	20	50	sw.	1874	5
Port Huron (1874-06)...	60	sw.	1893	13	54	sw.	1896	17	52	w.	1898	12	56	n.	1879	11	52	n.	1896	8	46	s.w.	1900*	11	54	s.w.	1887	24	58	sw.	1894	26
Detroit River.																																
Detroit (1871-06)...	72	ne.	1893	20	74	s.w.	1893	23	60	n.w.	1890	17	54	n.	1893	7	40	s.w.	1904	20	43	s.w.	1900	11	61	n.w.	1891	31	76	s.w.	1895	26
Lake Erie.																																
Toledo (1871-06)...	60	w.	1892	5	52	e.	1882	6	50	w.	1888	13	49	n.w.	1892	24	45	ne.	1875	1	60	s.	1898	24	60	w.	1906	27	68	s.w.	1906	21
Sandusky (1877-06)...	52	n.w.	1880	19	46	n.w.	1878	10	57	n.w.	1882	29	69	n.	1879	11	63	n.e.	1885	9	52	n.w.	1897	16	54	n.	1885	29	62	n.w.	1879	20
Cleveland (1871-06)...	60	n.	1901	20	60	n.w.	1905*	11	60	n.w.	1898	12	66	w.	1896	26	58	n.w.	1896	10	66	n.w.	1897	16	62	n.w.	1894	11	73	s.	1895	26
Erie (1873-06)....	60	so.	1894	10	60	s.	1875	...	40	w.	1899	7	56	w.	1876	...	40	w.	1895	28	45	s.w.	1895	12	48	w.	1887	24	54	w.	1891	23
Buffalo (1871-06)...	57	s.w.	1897	20	58	s.w.	1884	2	56	s.w.	1893	11	60	s.w.	1876	5	58	s.w.	1904	20	78	w.	1900	12	75	s.w.	1906	28	80	w.	1900	21
Lake Ontario.																																
Oswego (1871-06)...	54	se.	1893	20	40	se.	1894	20	36	ne.	1885	5	38	n.	1888	11	51	n.	1893	29	51	n.w.	1892	26	56	se.	1893	14	48	w.	1900*	21

* Also other years.

may be included storms which occasionally move northward along the Atlantic coast, increasing in energy as they reach higher latitudes, and frequently curving inland over the eastern portion of the Middle Atlantic States, as on November 13, 1904.

The storms of the first group are by far the most numerous and the least dangerous. The storms of the second group are not so numerous as those of the first, but they are generally attended by dangerous winds, at least over some portion of the Lake region. Storms of the third group rarely affect the upper lakes, but they cause dangerous winds over lakes Erie and Ontario.

Rarely does it happen that a storm, no matter to which of the above-mentioned groups it may belong, is equally severe in all portions of the Lake region. In the summer season, however, thunderstorms may prevail over the entire Lake region on the same day.

INFLUENCE OF VEGETATION IN CAUSING RAIN.

The following correspondence is published as a matter of interest to many readers:

Allow me to ask your valued opinion on the following matter: Admitting two clouds equally saturated with humidity to hang above two soils, the one teeming with luxuriant vegetation, the other barren and naked, parched by the sun, exuding heat, is the probability greater or not of the cloud in the first instance discharging itself in rain? Or, in other words, do the trees and the greater humidity of the one soil exercise no influence whatever in attracting rain?

* * * You assume two clouds hanging above two different regions, in one of which the soil has a luxuriant vegetation, while the other is barren, naked, and hot; and you ask whether the soil or the vegetation has any influence in "attracting rain".

If the clouds were low down, close to the soil, the warm, hot soil would doubtless contribute a little heat to evaporate the cloud particles and prevent rain, and by thus giving the cloud greater buoyancy the latter might rise a little higher. But neither the wet soil nor the dry soil would be likely to cause any rain.

If you have in mind the ordinary cumulus cloud, which is several thousand feet above the ground, then dry soils and moist soils would have no influence whatever upon the clouds, unless the areas of these dry and wet regions were extensive, such as a hundred miles square, in which case the great mass of warm, dry air would prevent the formation of rain, while on the other hand the mass of warm, moist air would not prevent rain, but would be helpful in case other circumstances conspired.

Neither dry land nor vegetation has any power whatever to "attract rain" from the clouds. If the raindrops are in the clouds they will fall toward the ground by the attraction of gravitation—not by any special attractive power of trees or soils. They will undoubtedly begin to fall in the clouds as soon as they are formed, and the fundamental question is, "How can we make the cloud particles join together into raindrops?" and not, "How can we attract the drops out of the cloud?" So far as meteorologists know at the present time the only place in which raindrops are formed in the warm climates of the globe, or warm seasons of the year, is in the midst of a rapid, ascending current of air. And if you notice that rain falls over a wet soil, rather than over a dry one, you will undoubtedly find that there are ascending currents of air over the wet soil, and descending currents over the dry soil. A descending current warms the air and prevents the formation of raindrops just as truly as an ascending current cools the air and favors the formation.

It is not worth while to appeal to electrical attraction or any other principle in physics, except the cooling by ascent and the mixing of air currents in cloudy regions where temperatures are but little above freezing.

Altho we do not know the exact details of the method of forming raindrops, as distinguished from fine cloud particles, yet it is safe to say that ascending and mixing are the important items, and that when once formed the drops will fall toward the ground. On their way down thru a stratum of very hot, dry air they may evaporate, so that the observer sees the streaks of falling rain, but gets none. In such cases the moist soil is *favorable to the preservation of the raindrops as such*, but we can not say that it *attracts* them from the cloud. This is quite an ordinary case in dry countries. In these cases the moisture is brought from a great distance—a hundred or a thousand miles—by currents of air that are slowly rising and rolling over and over on themselves. The upper part of the roll makes a cloud, the lower part is clear air. Raindrops are formed either slightly at nighttime, when the top of the cloud cools down in the absence of sunshine, or more freely in the daytime, when the vertical extent of the roll is greatly increased by the sun's heat. If in the daytime the overturning extends from sea level upward, then enough moisture is carried up to form a thunderstorm.

I do not see how man can possibly exert any appreciable influence on the formation of rain in your region. The forces involved in this atmospheric overturning, even in the smallest thunderstorm, are enormous. More energy is involved than is represented by all the steam engines in the world. The

best that can be done is to save the water that falls in wet regions and use it to irrigate in dry. An alternative method is to shade the dry regions from the midday heat and wind, so as to diminish the loss of moisture by evaporation.

WEATHER BUREAU MEN AS EDUCATORS.

In the Department of Agriculture number of the Vermont Bulletin, the official publication of the University of Vermont and State Agricultural College, we find the following synopsis of the courses in meteorology given by Mr. W. H. Alexander, local forecaster, Burlington, Vt.:

1. Elementary Meteorology: The atmosphere; its moisture; dew; frost; haze; fog; clouds; precipitation; winds; cyclones; thunderstorms; climate; weather; weather bureaus. The use of ordinary meteorological instruments; observations; the construction and study of weather maps. Lectures, recitations, laboratory. *Elective, one hour, Junior or Senior, second half.*

2. Advanced Meteorology.—Theories relative to various meteorological phenomena; the law of storms; application of the principles of meteorology to the interpretation of climates; climate as a factor in social and economic problems. Discussion of charts, diagrams, photographs; conduct of a series of meteorological observations; weather forecasting. Lectures, theses, laboratory. *Elective, two hours, Junior or Senior, first half.*

Mr. M. L. Fuller, observer, Canton, N. Y., reports that in the new State Agricultural School of St. Lawrence University he is to give considerable instruction. It is intended to introduce lectures on climatology and the work of the Weather Bureau early in the course, and to make the instruction in these lines as extensive as practicable.

Mr. George Reeder, section director, Columbia, Mo., reports that he has been appointed lecturer on climatology at the University of Missouri.

Mr. G. N. Salisbury, section director, Seattle, Wash., reports that his regular course of instruction in practical meteorology at the State University was given to a class of 7, and consisted of a series of 14 lessons of two to three hours each, extending from October 11, 1906, to January 24, 1907. The work comprised impromptu talks, quizzes, and laboratory work, which embraced observations, and the drawing and study of weather maps.

On June 26, 1907, instruction in elementary meteorology was begun with a class of 10 at the summer school of the university. The course comprised 16 lessons of two hours each, three times a week. Davis's Elementary Meteorology was used as a textbook, and was supplemented by talks and laboratory work.

Mr. A. H. Thiessen, section director, Raleigh, N. C., reports that the president of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, at West Raleigh, has authorized the expenditure of \$50 for lantern slides to be used in giving instruction in meteorology and climatology to the students of that college. There seems to be an increasing desire on the part of the students to take up this study.

Mr. J. R. Weeks, local forecaster, Binghamton, N. Y., reports that on July 25 he had the pleasure of visiting Mr. DeLancy M. Ellis, Chief of the Division of Visual Instruction, New York State Department of Education, at his office in the Capitol at Albany. This division has charge of the work in the schools of the State relating to the use of lantern slides, pictures, photographs, etc., as a means of instruction. Until recently, however, no attempt was made to furnish material of this nature for use in physical geography classes, and the views used were of descriptive geography or of a general nature, a collection of over 25,000 selected negatives having been made from which sets of beautiful colored slides for use in the stereopticon are issued to the schools, about \$20,000 being spent yearly by the State for the purpose.

But now, in addition to the lecture entitled "The weather, what it is and how it is observed and forecast", which, beginning with February last, has been loaned free to such schools as request it, by cooperation between the United States Weather Bureau and the New York State Department of Education, Division of Visual Instruction, Mr. Ellis is now selecting the negatives and having prepared in his office a beautiful set of colored slides illustrating four divisions of physical geography study—the earth as a globe, the atmosphere, the geosphere, and the hydrosphere. The entire series, containing, when completed, several hundred views, will be reproduced in large numbers and the duplicates deposited in many of the public high schools of the State for permanent use. These stereopticon views are not intended for lectures simply, but are to take the place of wall maps, charts, and pictures for daily class room use. For instance, in looking over the nucleus of the collection Mr. Weeks was shown a number of beautiful colored photographic reproductions, in the form of lantern slides, of the charts of isotherms, isobars, rainfall, etc., for the world, found in Bartholomew's Physical Atlas, permission to make them having been kindly granted by the publishers. These, like most weather maps and charts, are too complicated and rich in detail for ordinary lecture use, but are unexcelled for daily class room study. Publications of the U. S. Weather Bureau, Davis's Meteorology, Hann's Lehrbuch, etc., have also been freely drawn upon for reliable diagrams and charts, and striking views showing contrasts of weather influence on humanity and on vegetation have been selected from the best collections of many travellers. Helpful pamphlets are to accompany the series, and Mr. Ellis expects to visit many of the schools in the interest of this work.

In regard to public lectures and reviews, Mr. Ellis said that enthusiastic letters had been received by him from users of the Weather Bureau lecture, and that it is desired to continue permanently the plan adopted this year and approved by the Chief of Bureau.

Mr. Weeks further reports that this lecture, prepared by himself, entitled "The weather, what it is and how it is observed and forecast", continues in great demand, requests for it coming not only from all parts of New York, but from Nebraska and other States, so that the use of text and slides is usually arranged for several weeks in the future.

The following lectures and addresses by Weather Bureau men have been reported:

Mr. George S. Bliss, of the Philadelphia, Pa., office, March 20, 1907, before the physics class at George School, Pa., on "The work of the Weather Bureau"; May 2, 1907, at Darlington Seminary, West Chester, Pa., on "The causes and controlling forces of storms"; also June 22, 1907, before the Brandywine Grange, at West Chester, Pa., on "Methods of weather forecasting".

Mr. M. E. Blystone, October 2, 1907, before the Men's Club of the Trinity Union Methodist Episcopal Church at Providence, R. I.; October 15, 1907, before the Men's Club of the Episcopal Church at Pontiac, R. I.; also October 16, 1907, before the Men's Club of the Broadway Baptist Church of Providence, R. I., on "Weather forecasts".

Mr. W. T. Blythe, of the Indianapolis, Ind., office, October 30, 1907, before the Young Men's Christian Association at Peru, Ind., on "Meteorology and the work of the U. S. Weather Bureau".

Prof. H. J. Cox, April 9, 1907, before the Chicago Yacht Owner's Association, on "Wind squalls"; also August 13, 1907, before the Wisconsin Cranberry Growers' Association, at Cranmoor, Wis., on "Temperature and frost conditions in cranberry marshes".

Mr. H. W. Richardson, October 23, 1907, before the Ladies'

Guild, Holy Apostles Episcopal Church, West Duluth, Minn., on "The U. S. Weather Bureau and its work"; also November 30, 1907, before the Saturday Club, at the Duluth Carnegie Library Building, on "The Weather Bureau".

Mr. M. R. Sanford, August 9, 1907, before the summer school of Syracuse University, on "The work of the Weather Bureau".

Mr. R. H. Sullivan, November 21, 1907, before the Wichita, Kans., Chamber of Commerce, on "The work of the Weather Bureau and its relation to public interests".

Mr. J. F. Voorhees, of the Knoxville, Tenn., office, October 10, 1907, before the Farragut School, Concord, Tenn., on "How forecasts are made and distributed".

Mr. E. C. Vose, November 15, 1907, before the physical geography class of the Concord, N. H., High School, on "The work and usefulness of the Weather Bureau".

Classes from universities, colleges, schools, and academies have visited Weather Bureau offices to study the instruments and equipment and receive informal instruction, as reported from the following stations:

Albany, N. Y., June 8, 1907, the physical geography class from the La Salle Institute of Troy; also November 14, 1907, a class from the Teachers' Training School of Albany; also November 23, 1907, the physical geography class from the Union School; Rhinebeck, N. Y.

Baker City, Oreg., October 30, 1907, the class in physical geography from the local high school.

Dubuque, Iowa, October 18, 1907, the sixth grade pupils of the Prescott School; also October 25, 1907, the sixth and seventh grade pupils of the Jackson School.

Duluth, Minn., July 23, 1907, a class from the Superior, Wis., State Normal School; also July 25, 1907, a class from the Duluth State Normal School.

Huron, S. Dak., July 25, 1907, a class from the summer school of Huron College.

Los Angeles, Cal., October 15, 16, and 30, 1907, the physical geography class of the Hollywood, Cal., high school, in three sections.

Philadelphia, Pa., March 14 and 16, 1907, classes from the Pennsylvania State University.

Salt Lake City, Utah, September 16, 1907, a class from Lafayette school.

Seattle, Wash., November 14, 1906, a class in physical geography from Ballard High School; January 11, 1907, a class in physical geography from the Franklin High School; April 19 and 24, classes in physical geography, and April 30 a class in elementary meteorology from the Seattle High School.

Syracuse, N. Y., July 19, 1907, the class in physical geography from the summer school of Syracuse University.

A UNIVERSAL SEISMOGRAPH FOR HORIZONTAL MOTION AND NOTES ON THE REQUIREMENTS THAT MUST BE SATISFIED.¹

By C. F. MARVIN, Professor of Meteorology.

If we try to analyze and represent graphically the movements of the ground, such as result from seismic activity of different kinds and under different conditions, we find that we require several different diagrams, something like those shown in fig. 1.

At 1 are represented the minute motions of the ground, of small magnitude and short duration, such as might be produced by the passage of a heavy car or train; this might even represent a slight shock from a nearby local earthquake, of sufficient intensity to attract the attention of a few people, one that would be recorded by a seismograph of high magnifi-

¹ The substance of this paper was presented at the Chicago meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, December 31, 1907.

cation, as little more than a mere thickening of the line of the recording stylus or photographic trace. The short transverse dashes along the line are intended to mark the minutes of time, and the same time scale is used in the succeeding diagrams.

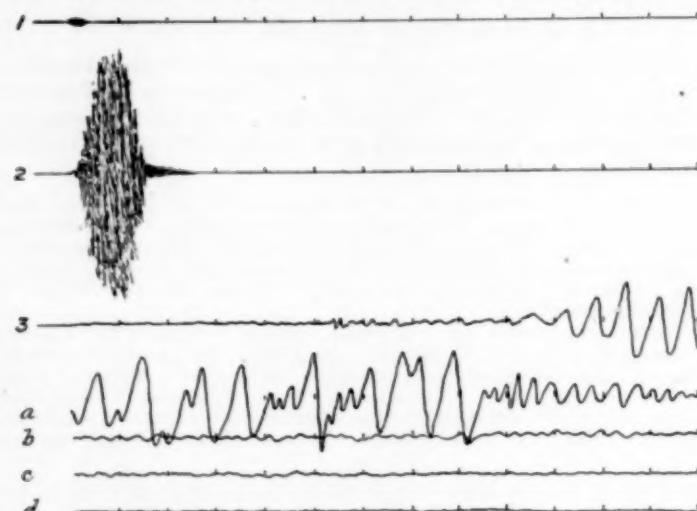


FIG. 1.—Diagrams of different species of ground vibrations.

At 2 we attempt to show, in relative characteristics, a destructive earthquake—such for example, as the earthquake in California in 1906. The time scale is too short to give more than a very general idea of the motion. A multitude of wave vibrations of short period and of great amplitude, as compared with those in 1, are crowded into a short period of time. Practically no details can be made out from such a record as this.

Finally at 3, with continuations of the record at a, b, c, and d, for lack of adequate length in a single line, we show the kind of record that will be obtained at a distance of 1000 miles or more from the origin of any great disturbance. As already stated, the time scales are the same throughout the several records, and the amplitudes may be taken to be half size, at least for the larger waves. The smallest tremors are of very great importance in seismic records, and these are greatly exaggerated in the diagrams simply to make them apparent under the scale adopted in the figure.

The three diagrams thus described represent what we may regard as the three limiting classes of shocks. It is plain that one class merges imperceptibly into the other in proportion to the intensity of the disturbance and the distance from the origin at which the record is made. Such diagrams as these may be regarded as representative of one of the two components of horizontal motion, whereas a third set is necessary for the vertical motion, and, in some cases, there may be tilting and twisting motions, all of which require careful consideration.

The problem presented to the instrumental seismologist is to devise and design an instrument or instruments that will record these several degrees of motions in a satisfactory manner. It would be of great interest, at this point, to describe the more important seismographs now in extensive use to meet this demand. To do so, however, even in the briefest manner, would require much more time and space than are available, and it seems best to pass at once to the description of the new forms, recognizing that the present work marks, perhaps, only a step in the evolution and development of the seismograph toward which so much has been already contributed by Zoellner, Ewing, Milne, Gray, Vicentini, von Rebeur-Paschwitz, Omori, Wiechert, Galitzin, and many others.

It may fairly be said that at the present time none of the existing instruments are adapted to register all kinds of earthquake motion. If we wish to record microseismic motions we must get one sort of instrument. A different instrument is

required for the satisfactory registration of large, distant disturbances. Still a third type of instrument is required for damaging or destructive shocks, and the existing instruments of the first two types, if not completely wrecked when subjected to destructive shocks, at least are seriously disordered, in most cases, and their records falsified and interrupted. If one sets out to equip a seismological observatory, he finds himself obliged to install a large number of instruments. Not only must these be of different types, adapted to the different degrees of intensity and character of earthquake motion, but, in many cases at least, two instruments of each type are necessary, since we have two components of horizontal motion to register, and the horizontal pendulum type of instrument can record only one component of motion. Mention has already been made of the vertical component of motion. Very few instruments are available for recording this, and the measurement and registration of the vertical motion involves exceptional difficulties, and must be treated in a class by itself. Our attention at present is directed exclusively to instruments for the registration of horizontal motion. Those familiar with the subject generally recognize that seismographs, with few exceptions, are influenced by more than one kind of motion. Seismographs for horizontal motion are all influenced by changes in the direction of the vertical and by the tilting of the ground, as well as by vibratory horizontal displacements, so that we can not certainly tell just how a given record should be interpreted.

Having all these matters in mind, I have undertaken to design a seismograph for horizontal motion that should satisfy all the reasonable demands to a much greater degree than any of the instruments now available. The results obtained with the most perfect instruments are, at the best, somewhat uncertain in details, and, recognizing this, my chief object has been the development of a type of instrument that shall satisfy all reasonable requirements for general observatory work, and from which entirely reliable records can be obtained by the average observer. The special student of any problem is always able to refine his instruments and methods so as to attain results of the highest possible order.

A seismograph consists essentially of three separate and distinct parts, viz:

I. The steady mass, so-called, whose function it is simply to remain stationary during the earthquake.

II. The connecting and transmitting mechanisms between the steady mass and the adjacent ground, whose function it is to transmit and, if necessary, more or less to magnify and to inscribe the motions of the ground; and, finally—

III. The recorder, consisting simply of clock movements, drums, paper, etc., upon which the record is actually inscribed.

There is still a fourth part, which, while often missing and not entirely essential, is nevertheless a valuable adjunct in many high-grade seismographs, namely:

IV. Damping devices. These serve the purpose of limiting and controlling the motions that the steady mass may sometimes acquire.

In the presentation which follows we shall take up these parts in order and shall first discuss in each case the general requirements that must be met and more or less perfectly satisfied, then describe the devices and apparatus designed by me to meet these requirements.

L.—THE STEADY MASS.

General requirements.—In the first place, the whole seismograph, especially the steady mass, must be absolutely earthquake proof when solidly installed and subjected to seismic vibrations of the severest order. Of course no seismograph can measure and record the great displacements of several feet that may occur, for example, in the immediate proximity of a line of faulting or where soft, alluvial, deposits of soil are bodily shifted by large vibrations; but we may reasonably demand that

an acceptable seismograph be able to ride thru true vibratory motion of the most severe degree, and to do so without the least disorder or derangement of its functions; in fact, it must faithfully record *all* this motion. At first sight, it may seem almost impossible to construct an instrument that will record truthfully the violent surges and vibrations of the ground during a great destructive earthquake that lays a whole city in ruins in a few seconds; nevertheless, it is actually easier to construct an instrument for this purpose than it is to produce one that will record equally well the great unfelt vibrations that are propagated to great distances from the origin of a violent disturbance.

It is hardly practicable to enumerate all the requirements that we have aimed to satisfy in this new instrument, but we have had a primary regard for all such questions as facility of manufacture and installation; immunity from disturbing influences of the immediate environment, such as temperature, surface tilting, etc.; convenience of manipulation, adjustment, maintenance, and general infallibility of registration, etc.; and finally, the question of cost has received due consideration. In respect to this I may say that a long experience with many classes of instruments has thoroly convinced me that the man who rejects a carefully designed and manufactured piece of apparatus because it costs rather more than something cheap, which may, perhaps, seem good enough, is doomed to disappointment. The best we can do is pretty certain to fail sooner or later, and the failures always come at some critical time when failure is most disastrous. Cheap apparatus is frequently replaced at a later period by something better, thus greatly enhancing the total outlay with less satisfactory results.

Assuming that the reader is familiar with the general elements of seismic apparatus, I may say that the steady mass is, in a certain sense, the basis of the whole instrument. It is impracticable to discuss here the kinetic conditions that must be satisfied in the design of this part of the apparatus, but I can not emphasize too strongly the primary necessity that the steady mass be *free to remain at rest* thruout *all* portions of *any* earthquake. If we examine many of the existing instruments we find it impossible for the steady mass to remain at rest, except only for motions of very small amplitude. In most of the photographic recorders—of the horizontal-pendulum type, for example—the steady mass is carried on a very short strut, or moment arm. This construction not only introduces large angular motions of the strut as a result of moderate relative movements of the ground and steady mass; but even with slight deflections the pendulum is largely influenced by motion at right angles to its axis; that is to say, the instrument records movements which it is not supposed to register.

Again, probably all the instruments now employed in the registration of microseismic motion, if not open to the criticism just made, are, nevertheless, so trammelled with stops, or bumpers, that the steady mass is free to remain at rest only for very small displacements of the ground. This is especially necessary in instruments with mechanical registration, and arises from the fact that the delicate mechanisms employed to magnify the motions from one hundred to two hundred or more times form a delicate system of linkages which in reality can operate only over a very limited range, and are likely to be wrecked or seriously deranged by motions beyond this range. In all these instruments, therefore, the steady mass, during the stronger motions of the ground, is bumped into and buffeted here and there by the stops or buffers on the apparatus, and the records made at such a time are, of course, rendered valueless. It is a very unsatisfactory excuse to make that instruments of this class are not designed to record the larger movements of an earthquake.

In order that the steady mass may be as free as possible to remain at rest for all kinds of earthquake motion it must be mounted upon a relatively long strut, or moment arm, or sup-

port. By "long" in this connection, I mean a distance of two or three feet, at the least. Supports of much greater length may easily be employed and possess very great advantages in other respects, which will be discussed later.

Two types of steady mass, briefly described.²—It seems advisable, at this point, briefly to describe two types of steady mass that seem best adapted to meet all the possible requirements. This will give the reader a mental picture that will be of great assistance in the further presentation of the general requirements. These types are shown diagrammatically in figs. 2 and 3.

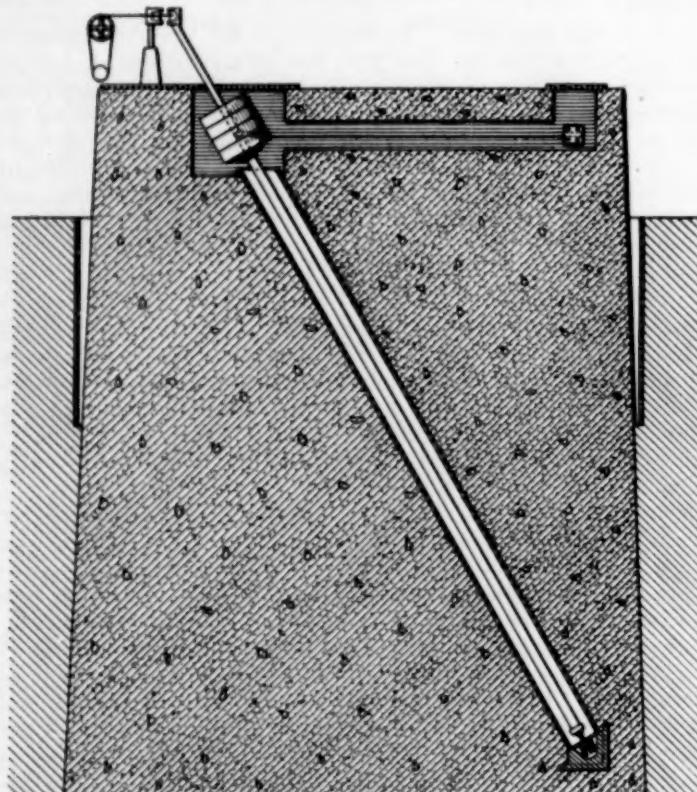


FIG. 2.—Inverted horizontal pendulum seismograph, Marvin system.

The first form is simply an inverted horizontal pendulum. The object especially sought in the adoption of this construction is to secure relatively large dimensions and, at the same time, to escape, as far as possible, disturbing influences due to temperature and lack of solidity and rigidity. This type of pendulum is peculiarly suited to what we may call absolute measurements of large vibrations, because the highest accuracy of measurement becomes possible owing to the very long period that it seems practicable to realize in this construction. As the instrument is chiefly relied upon for large motions only a low scale of magnification will be utilized.

The second type of steady mass is better adapted to the ordinary registration of earthquakes at numerous stations and for general seismological work. It consists of an inverted pendulum, that is, a heavy mass on the top end of a strut supported at its bottom end on a suitable form of frictionless pivot. The mass at the top end is prevented from wobbling about by the reaction of a suitable spring, *S*, which causes it to stand quite erect, and, when disturbed, to oscillate freely about a definite position of rest. Any reasonable range of motion may be provided for.

Period of the steady mass.—Referring particularly to the last-described arrangement, we now have mentally before us a steady mass, which, so far as its mountings and immediate en-

²A detailed description of the two types of steady mass is given below.

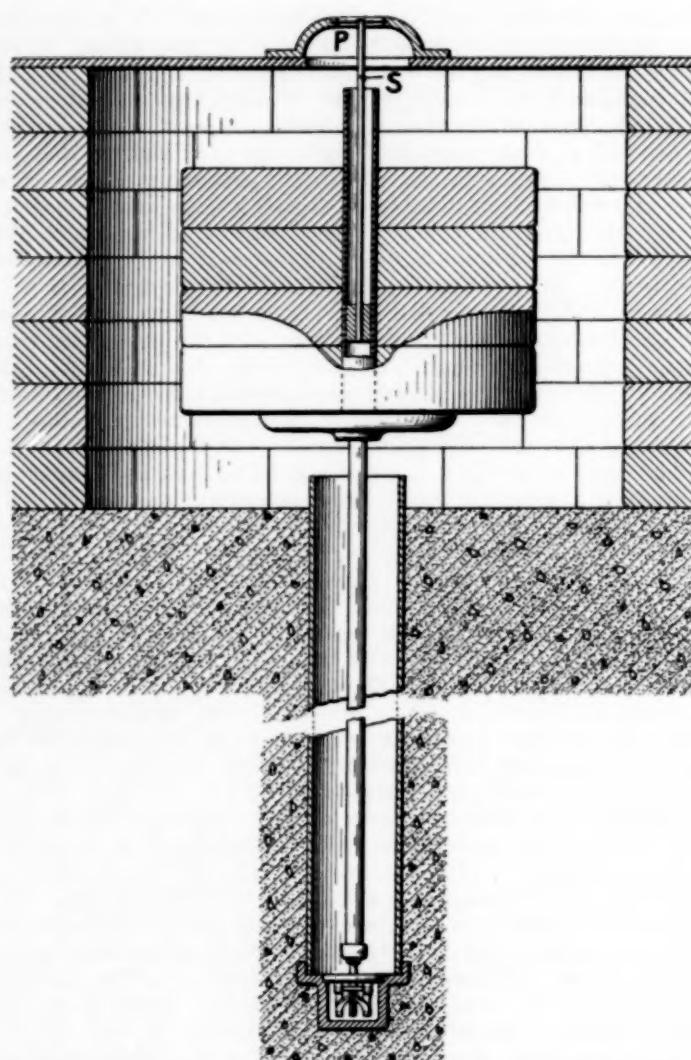


FIG. 3.—Inverted astatic pendulum diagrammatic, Marvin system.

vironment are concerned, is free to remain at rest during any earthquake motion. The question is whether it will actually do so. This will depend almost entirely upon its period of oscillation. When the ground and pier move to and fro with seismic vibration, the pivot-point support underneath the steady mass, and likewise the fixed top end of the spring *S* are displaced from their positions of equilibrium, and there is immediately set up a reaction of the spring which tends to make the steady mass follow after the spring. If, now, the force of restitution exerted by the spring is very small as compared to the inertia of the steady mass, the latter will move under the action of the spring only very slowly, that is, its free period of oscillation will be very long. If now, at the same time the seismic vibrations of the ground and pier are relatively rapid, it is very plain that the steady mass can move only very slightly under the influence of the spring and the vibrations of its pivot support before the directions of the motion of the ground and the influence of the spring are reversed. In other words, the steady mass remains very nearly at rest only when the period of the ground vibrations is very short as compared with that of the steady mass. This requirement is easily satisfied in the case of damaging or destructive shocks, as in such cases the periods of the motions to be dealt with are mostly only one or two seconds, or even fractions of a second; and it is very easy to get a period of fifteen or twenty seconds for the steady mass—that is ten to fifteen times as long as the periods of the disturbance. For this reason it is much easier to record accu-

rately the ground motions in destructive earthquakes than to record the large, slow motions that are propagated to great distances from an origin. In these latter cases the ground vibration may often have a period of from ten to thirty seconds, or even longer, which coincides so nearly with the natural period of the steady mass that the latter at once follows, systematically, all the disturbing vibrations. The steady mass in fact is set into violent oscillation and its record falsified. To avoid this difficulty we should lengthen the period of the steady mass to, say, two hundred or three hundred seconds. This, however, introduces new difficulties, and steady masses with periods of more than sixty to ninety seconds are not yet in successful use.

While the steady mass, for the reasons just explained, may sometimes fail to remain at rest, yet the earthquake motion is so complex and the period changes in such an irregular manner that the records are only partially impaired. To overcome this difficulty resort must be had to what is called damping, which will be more fully discussed under Section IV.

Weight or inertia of the steady mass.—The mass of matter which must be concentrated in the steady mass depends on the period of the pendulum, the resistance to be overcome at the pivots or other connections with the pendulum, and the work involved in producing the desired record. In the latest photographic recorders made by Bosch a mass of 100 grams entirely suffices, and the motions are controlled by a simple air-damping device.

A vastly greater mass is necessary if mechanical registration is employed, and in this case the amount required depends upon the magnification and the method of registration. With mechanical recorders magnifying 200 times Wiechert employs a steady mass weighing just about one ton (2,200 pounds). Probably there is no method of mechanical registration so delicate and so nearly frictionless as that of writing by means of a very light stylus upon the smoked surface of glass or paper. Exceedingly fine lines can be made and the minutest details are perfectly reproduced in the record. If the period is from twenty to thirty seconds a steady mass of twenty to fifty pounds is necessary to inscribe a record of this kind with a magnification of ten to twenty times and without damping. Damping could not be used on such a pendulum unless the period was reduced below twenty seconds, as the unavoidable friction would itself damp the pendulum about as much as would be allowable.

I have made quite an extensive investigation into the force required to inscribe smoked paper records, and have ascertained about the limit beyond which we can not go in practical work. The resistance is primarily proportional to the pressure exerted by the stylus and depends very little upon the thickness of the soot coating. If the soot coating is too heavy the stylus will not inscribe a deep line, but will ride partly on top of the soot; while a thinner coating will be wholly removed with about the same resistance. One must, therefore, adopt a sort of standard thickness of soot. In my own case, I require a coating sufficiently dense to yield a good strong photographic reproduction of any records I may obtain. Such a coating may be rather thin and perceptibly translucent, after varnishing, when held up to the light.

The stylus required to write a reasonably satisfactory record in these cases must exert a pressure at its writing point of not less than one or one and two-tenths milligrams. The force required to move such a stylus sideways varies considerably, as may easily be understood, but it is very close to one milligram, possibly a little less.

I have measured the pressure and force required over a wide range of conditions, and have been surprised to find that the force required to push the stylus is only a little less than the pressure exerted at its point; that is, from 0.8 to 0.9 of the pressure. This signifies a very high coefficient of friction, but

the action of the stylus in plowing away the soot is not quite analogous to ordinary cases of friction.

I have published in the *MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW* for May, 1906,³ methods of further reducing the friction by the influence of minute vibrations, which keep the point of the stylus in a continual state of tremor. By this method the pressure of the stylus can be reduced to from 0.7 to 0.8 milligram, and the resulting line, owing to the minute tremors, will be better than the line produced by the heavier stylus and with distinctly less friction; but long experience shows it is difficult to maintain the vibrations at just the right period and intensity. Little changes come in at times, and, in some cases, the action of the vibration influences the pendulum itself and induces wave motions that vitiate the record.

As the friction at the stylus is generally of far greater influence in damping the pendulum than the unavoidable friction at the pivots, we may form an idea of the mass of matter required to overcome this resistance under given conditions.

Thus far we have considered chiefly the resistance to be overcome. The source of power to overcome the resistance is, in every case, the *force of restitution* of the steady mass. This force of restitution is primarily a function of the period of the pendulum. The period, therefore, becomes of great importance in this connection. If the pendulum is displaced a small amount from its position of rest, and if the friction at the stylus and at other points is greater than the force of restitution corresponding to the given amount of displacement, then the pendulum will be unable to return to its position of rest. This state of affairs can easily be realized by simple experiments with a seismograph with mechanical registration.

The force of restitution in any given case is

$$f = W \sin i,$$

where W is the mass and i the angle of deflection. We may write instead

$$f = W \frac{4 d}{l T^2},$$

in which d is the displacement at center of percussion, l is the length of the seconds pendulum, and T is the period of the steady mass. If now x is the displacement on the record sheet, and n is the multiplying factor, then $d = \frac{x}{n}$. If f_s is the force of

restitution as exerted at the point of stylus, then $f_s = \frac{f}{n}$, whence,

$$f_s = W \frac{4 x}{l T^2 n^2}.$$

For seismographs with mechanical registration on smoked paper, the weight of the steady mass should, in general, be great enough to give f_s a value rather greater than one milligram, when x is one millimeter.

The writer strongly advocates the use of heavy steady masses and large dimensions for seismic instruments. The little, delicate photographic recorders with steady masses of a few hundred grams and the possibility of motion greatly limited are not suited to real earthquake registration. Their chief utility is to record the slow, diurnal and secular tilting motions of the crust of the earth, resulting from tidal stresses and other causes.

Sensitive masses.—In all that precedes great stress is laid upon the necessity that the steady mass be perfectly free to remain at rest, or that if it move at all it do so under some kind of damping control so that its motion may be determinate. This is necessary if we wish to *measure* the amount of earthquake motion. If, however, we wish to ascertain simply that earthquake motion has occurred the best device is not a "steady mass" that shall remain at rest, but what we may call

³ Vol. XXXIV, p. 214.

a "sensitive mass"; that is, a mass very free to oscillate and with its period so chosen that it synchronizes closely with the kind of earth vibrations it is designed to show. In cases of this kind, exceedingly minute tremors of the ground, if they persist for a few seconds, may suffice to set the "sensitive mass" in relatively very great motion.

Instruments in which this principle is employed have, however, only a rather limited utility.

The two types of steady mass designed by me will now be described in detail.

The inverted horizontal pendulum.—The writer proposes this arrangement of the steady mass in order to realize the longest possible period of free oscillation. For this purpose the dimensions of the pendulum must be as large as possible. But if we give the pendulum large dimensions and build it on the top of the pier, we introduce two new difficulties which largely defeat the objects in view; that is, we are likely to lose rigidity and solidity, which are of the greatest importance, and to introduce uncontrollable temperature differences and other influences which are proportionately exaggerated with the larger dimensions. We therefore build the pendulum as much as possible below ground, and not only do we secure solidity and stability, otherwise unattainable, but the troubles from temperature and other atmospheric influences must be very largely reduced.

A pendulum of this character is peculiarly adapted to register large slow vibrations that form part of the wave motions induced by distant earthquakes. Such an instrument requires only small magnification, and in many particulars it is very easily constructed and maintained. Details of construction will be readily understood from the accompanying figures and description of the second type of pendulum. Some features of the theory of the instrument and limitations upon the development are given below.

The period of vibration of a horizontal pendulum is derived from an equation of this form:

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{g}} \sqrt{\frac{lh}{a}}$$

where l and h are, respectively, the horizontal and vertical arms of the pendulum, while a is a small quantity measuring the slight inclination it is always necessary to give the vertical arm.

It is plain that the value of T is greater the greater we make the product lh and the smaller we make a . The quantity a can not, in general, be made smaller than certain minimum limits. In any case we make a just as small as practicable. For great periods the product lh must be as great as practicable.

Omori, in Japan, employs horizontal pendulums of the greatest periods of any at present in use, sixty seconds or more. The product lh in these cases is, I believe, about 2.65 (meters by meters). By adopting the proposed construction, it is entirely practicable, I think, to increase this product up to six or more, and thus realize the longest practicable periods. The new difficulties introduced by this procedure arise from astronomical and meteorological causes. A long-period pendulum is exceedingly sensitive to variations in the direction of gravitation, and to slow tiltings of the ground due to obscure meteorological and other influences. Only recently an account of a highly important work has been published by O. Hecker⁴ upon the influences of the sun and moon upon the horizontal pendulum and the deformation of the crust of the earth. According to the results obtained by Hecker, there is a definite daily variation of a horizontal pendulum, even when sunk to a depth of 25 meters below the surface, which, in extreme cases, may attain a maximum value of 0.05 second. This influence causes the recording stylus of

a highly sensitive pendulum to wander slowly from one side of the record sheet to the other, and thus causes difficulties not otherwise encountered in more stable systems. The tidal influences, moreover, are complicated by large and slow tiltings of the ground, due to various causes. All these details require careful consideration in any effort that may be made to realize a very long period for the steady mass. The tidal and tilting influences mark the limits beyond which we can not go in the development of this branch of the work.

The type of steady mass which I am now considering, that is, the inverted horizontal pendulum, will, I believe, enable us to realize the longest possible period of oscillation and still retain a sufficient degree of stability for practical recording. If experience proves that a period of two hundred seconds or more is practicable, then any wave motions that generally occur will be almost perfectly recorded by it; that is to say, such a steady mass will remain almost perfectly at rest, and the indications of such an instrument should constitute the nearest approach we yet have to an absolute measure of the earthquake motion. These conclusions are based on the assumptions that the movements of the ground are literally movements of translation. If the motions are really tiltings of the surface and not translations, then the indications of the long-period steady mass will be very greatly exaggerated and will require to be interpreted upon an entirely different basis than if the motions are translations.

Simple inverted pendulum.—This arrangement of the steady mass seems better adapted than any other for the registration of all kinds of horizontal motions.

Fig. 4 shows in sectional elevation the large instrument with which all the experiments leading to the results set forth in this paper have been carried out.

In this case also the steady mass is built *within* the pier, and is practically wholly inclosed by the latter. When the pit is being excavated for the pier, a post hole is dug beyond for a depth of several feet, and a piece of iron pipe, closed at the bottom, is set up perfectly vertical on a good, strong, footing of concrete. The pier is then built up around the pipe as indicated, and the top covered over by a suitable iron plate which forms the base plate for all the recording apparatus, thus realizing the maximum of solidity, compactness, and accessibility. The strut for the steady mass is made of ordinary iron pipe (steam or water pipe), and terminates at the lower end in a type of universal pivot of ribbon-steel construction. One of these adapted to sustain safely a steady mass of over 2,000 pounds is shown in fig. 5. The iron pipe built in the pier is of such construction that the steady mass and strut with its suspension can be inserted and removed from the pier whenever desired, without the least derangement of the suspension.

This arrangement constitutes, of course, an inverted pendulum, and is in unstable equilibrium. It is rendered astatic by the reaction of a cylindrical steel spring rod S and plate P , arranged exactly as shown in fig. 3.

Wiechert has used very successfully a short, inverted pendulum, but the method employed by him to render the pendulum astatic seems less convenient to arrange and manipulate than the one here shown and does not permit large ranges of motion; moreover I believe it is not so technically correct in its mechanical action.

The lower end of the spring S is intended to be fixt at the center of percussion of the whole steady mass. Under these circumstances its reaction upon the suspended mass coincides as exactly as may be desired with that of the force of gravity, which in this case is to be wholly neutralized; and when the reaction of the spring slightly exceeds the component of gravity the whole mass oscillates more or less slowly upon its pivot in proportion to the excess of the reaction of the spring over the component of gravity. It is necessary, of course, to eliminate friction to the greatest possible degree. The ribbon-steel

⁴ Beobachtungen an Horizontalpendeln über die Deformation des Erdkörpers unter dem einfluss von Sonne und Mond. Von O. Hecker. Berlin, 1907.

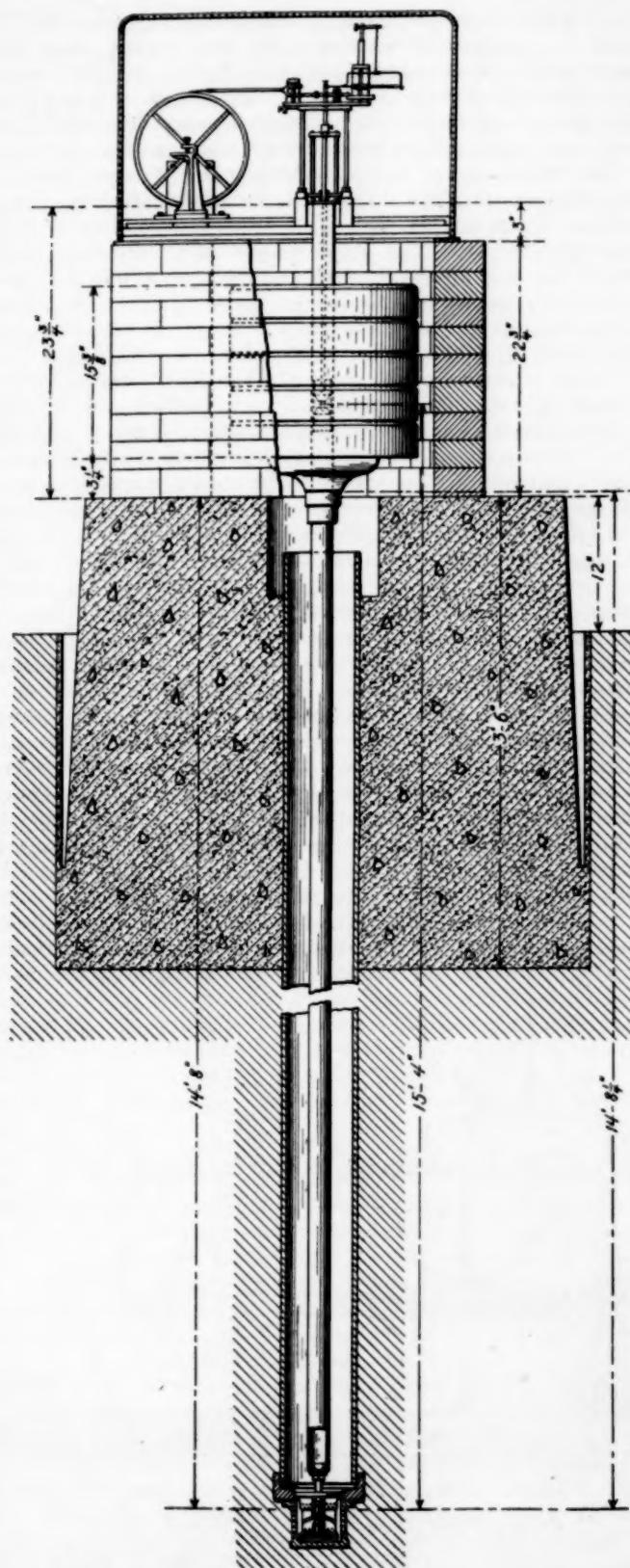


FIG. 4.—Inverted astatic pendulum seismograph, Marvin system.
suspension realizes this in a highly satisfactory manner when great weights are to be supported. It is equally important that the spring S be held at both ends (the top and bottom) in the most approved fashion. At the bottom end the spring is fitted on a slight taper and driven into a massive metal plug. At the top the spring rod seizes, by means of a screw clamp, a

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flat, tempered-steel disk which, in turn, is securely clamped around its periphery to the top of the pier. Very simple and exceedingly convenient means are provided for centering the steady mass vertically above its pivots. The spring S and plate P must be of the best spring-tempered steel, and a thoro investigation of these has shown most remarkably perfect elastic properties. To realize the benefits of these properties, however, the pieces of steel must be grasped in the most perfect manner possible.

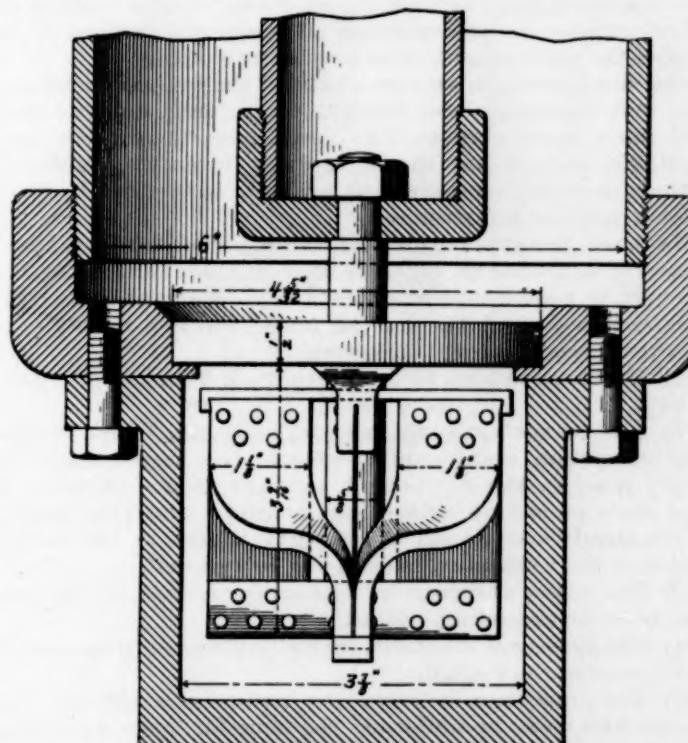


FIG. 5.—Universal pivot, or gimbal, of ribbon-steel construction, Marvin system.

Without any exception, so far as I know, seismographs are constructed to be installed largely above ground, that is, above the floor of the room occupied.

The plan shown here, of building the mountings of the steady mass in the pier, rather than *on top of it*, secures, first, a degree of solidity and invariability that are unattainable in the ordinary construction; and, second, the elimination of the unequal changes of temperature in different parts of the apparatus, which cause serious wanderings and driftings of the zero position of exposed seismographs. To exclude dust, insects, etc., and avoid influence of air currents, the exposed mechanisms on the top of the pier can be easily inclosed by a small, close-fitting cover of glass or other material.

A steady mass of this design and arrangement has, as regards earthquake vibrations, almost unlimited freedom of motion in the horizontal plane. It is simply a question as to how much motion we may desire to record on some extreme occasions. A double amplitude of 3 inches has seemed adequate from the information available to the writer, but greater motion can easily be provided for, if necessary.

II. CONNECTION BETWEEN STEADY MASS AND RECORDER.

General requirements.—In all that precedes we have shown how we may arrange and construct a steady mass that is practically earthquake proof and free to remain at rest. The next important step is to devise means whereby we may take off the two horizontal components of motion between the ground and the steady mass, and cause the same to be properly inscribed upon the record. Of course during an earthquake it is chiefly the ground, not the steady mass, that moves, but

as we look at the instrument it seems as if the steady mass itself moves, and that form of the expression is simpler and may be used occasionally even tho inexact.

I have already indicated, partly at least, that all existing forms of seismographs fail to meet the requirements of a universal instrument, either because the steady mass is on too short a strut, or, more particularly, because the recording levers and connecting mechanisms can perform their functions under only a very limited range of motions, and generally they are saved from serious injury during strong earthquake action only by the interposition of stops and buffers which restrict the relative motion to very narrow limits.

The steady mass in an instrument of the ordinary construction, with mechanical registration magnifying, say, two hundred times, is not permitted to move more than a few hundredths of an inch, and the multiplying levers are constantly liable to serious disorders that are well understood by those familiar with such instruments.

We have tentatively adopted three inches, or 75 millimeters, as the maximum probable motion that the seismograph will ever be required to record. Any mechanisms connecting the steady mass and the ground must therefore satisfy some such requirements as the following:

(1) Maximum motion to be transmitted, 3 inches (75 millimeters).

(2) The connection must take off only one linear component of motion, and permit perfectly free movement of the steady mass in the component at right angles thereto. It must show no motion, or the least possible, when the motion of the steady mass is strictly at right angles to the component that the connection is designed to transmit.

(3) The power absorbed in transmission, that is, the friction, must be exceedingly small.

(4) The looseness, or shake, or lost motion, in transmission must be *nil* or very small.

(5) The proportion between the motion received and that transmitted must be uniformly the same for large and small motions, and for motions over any part of the range.

(6) Conditions of simplicity, accessibility, adjustability and general convenience of manipulation and maintenance must be satisfied as far as practicable.

Description of high magnification transmission.—Having discarded numerous devices and arrangements I have finally developed the spring-bow and wheel transmission shown in plan and elevation in fig. 6; this seems to meet nearly all the requirements. The topmost extremity of the steady mass terminates in an adjustable pin, *P*. At the top end of *P* two hardened-steel cups, like those shown at *C*, are inserted at right angles to each other, with the one just above the other.

It may be convenient, in some cases, to have the cups *C* adjustable, that is, to screw in and out. A piece of steel music wire, *S*, 0.044 inch in diameter, is sharpened to a needle-like point where it rests in the cup *C* and is bent in the form shown. The hooks *h*, *h'* are formed of any quite fine wire, which is coiled in the manner indicated, and slipt over *S*. The hooks must be fastened, if not coiled tight enough to hold otherwise. *W* is a very light skeleton wheel, mounted on a very free-moving, pivot-pointed axis of the well-known construction, as shown. The rim of the wheel is provided with three grooves, as indicated. While these grooves are really very small, they are relatively very deep compared with the fine silk thread which is run around the grooves. The figure shows an enlarged cross-section of the rim, with dimensions of the grooves marked in units of .001 of an inch. At one side of the wheel a hole is made thru the rim at the bottom of each groove. A piece of ordinary silk sewing thread of the proper length (which can easily be determined) is taken, and its free ends past thru the holes in the outside grooves, one end in each hole; the free ends are then securely knotted together. A loop of the thread is then pulled thru the hole in the bottom of the central groove, leaving the knot on the inside of the rim. The attachment of the thread to the spring-bow by means of the hooks at *h* and *h'* is a very simple matter, easily understood. The spring-bow is suspended in a free-moving fashion by means of a thread, as indicated. Finally, the link-suspended, small weight *wt* serves

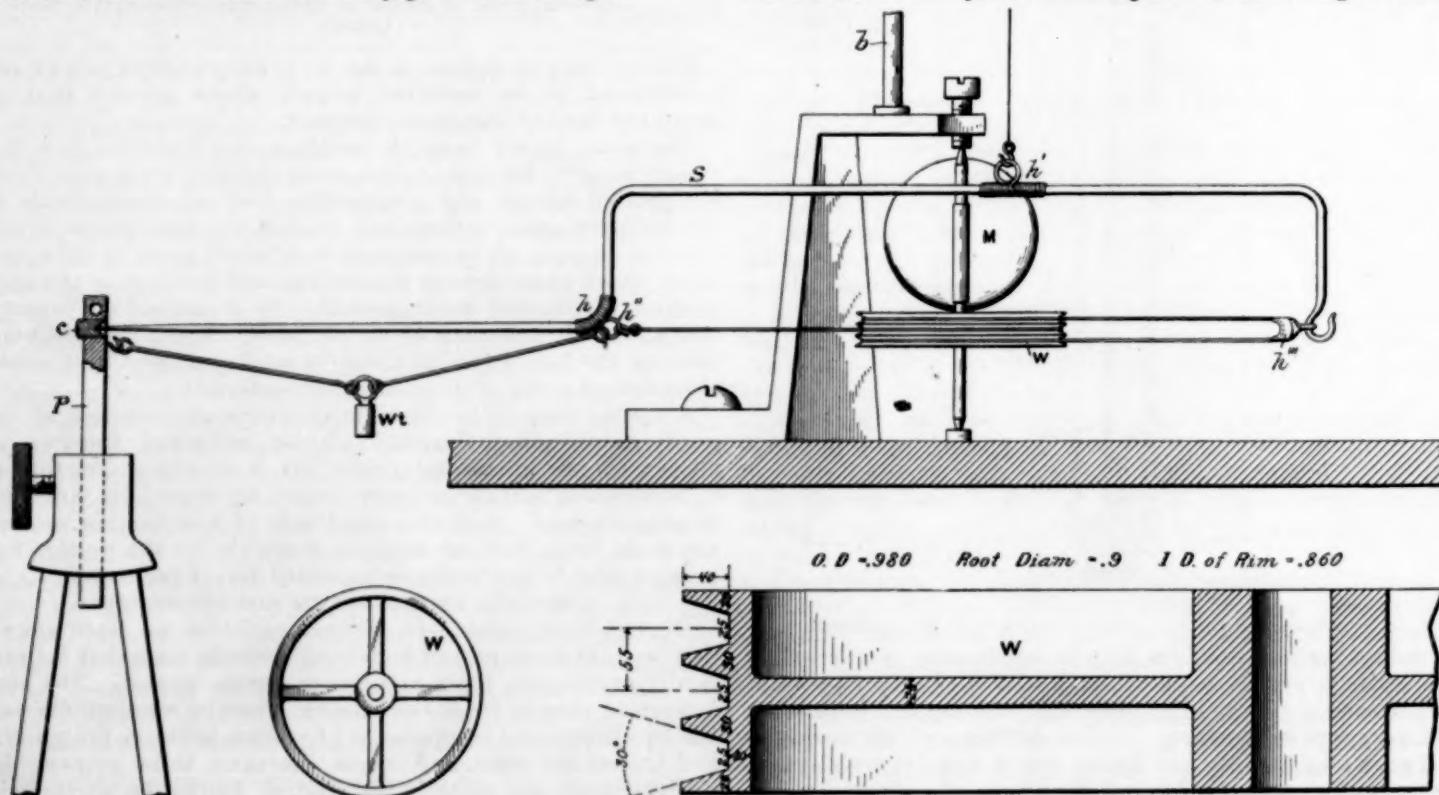


FIG. 6.—Plan and elevation of the spring-bow and wheel transmission, Marvin system.

to keep the point of the spring *S* in the cup *C* with a gentle pressure.

The action of this system for taking off the motion is exceedingly smooth and devoid of shake, lost motion, and friction. The arrangement of the double thread in the three grooves secures a perfectly balanced system of internal forces. The action of the spring-bow takes up symmetrically any slight variations of the threads with moisture, etc.; and where the threads parallel each other they are free to slip over the hooks *h*'' and *h*''', thus equalizing, approximately, the tension in the two branches. The wheel *W*, if one inch in diameter, provides for 3.14 inches of motion, and more than one turn of the thread on the wheel is permissible. The distance of the wheel *W* from *P* can easily be made sufficiently great to satisfy fully the requirements of (2).

By the aid of this arrangement we accomplish the first step in the process of transmitting the motion of the steady mass to the record. We simply transform one component of the motion into approximately one turn of the wheel *W* and its staff. It remains now to transfer this motion with the necessary magnification to the record sheet.

Fig. 7 shows a system of levers for this purpose, with a magnification of 120 times. The writer has used this arrangement very successfully for several months past, and it seems to meet all the requirements herein set forth. The distinguishing features of this system are the means provided by which the motions of the levers stop when these reach a certain extreme position, whereas the motion of the wheel *W* and its connection with the steady mass are in no wise limited by the levers. This is accomplished by exactly the same devices that are employed in the lever-escapement of all ordinary watches, and when the levers are properly constructed there is little to prevent their action from being just as certain and reliable as is demonstrated to be possible in the millions of watches and clocks in common use. A pin, *p*, on the wheel *W* engages a forked opening in the lever *l*. Underneath the fork of the lever a small pin enters a notch or opening in the flat rim of *W*. When the motion of the wheel *W* carries the pin *p* out of the fork in the lever *l*, the pin below the fork has likewise past out of the notch in the rim, and the lever is prevented by the rim from returning until the return movement of the wheel accomplishes a re-engagement of the pin *p* and fork. The end of the lever *l*, opposite the fork, is provided with a delicately pivoted pin, *p'*, which in turn, engages a fork in the short end of the stylus lever *L*, as seen. Inasmuch as the stylus lever can not sweep over a much wider angle than that embraced within the width of the record sheet, it is necessary that *p'* also disengage under conditions of extreme motion with high magnification. This is easily effected by making the fork in the end of *L* of the shape shown, and providing two small bristle brushes, *b*, *b'*, to limit the motion of *L*. The lever can not go beyond the brushes, and it can return only when the pin *p'* is ready to engage the fork.

While these devices perform their function remarkably well and recorded perfectly the great earthquake of December 30, 1907, yet the writer has recently developed the photographic registration to such a state that he regards it decidedly the most advantageous for all records of high magnification (100 to 200). Mechanical records are best under conditions of moderate magnification, two to twenty or thirty times, for example.

III. THE RECORDER.

General requirements.—No seismograph can claim to possess universality that does not provide for a magnification of at least one hundred times, which is necessary in order that the small microseismic motions may be easily distinguished. On the other hand the larger motions may be very easily recorded with a small magnification of two to five times. We must, therefore, have at least two records with low and high magnifications, respectively.

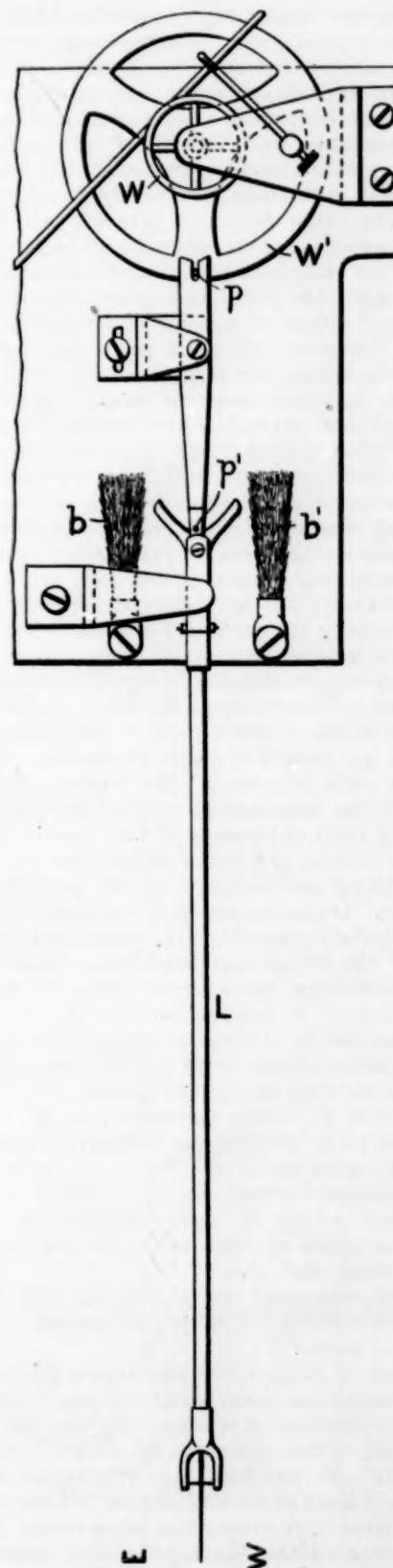


FIG. 7.—Arrangement of levers for transferring motion, Marvin system.

Kind of record.—There are, perhaps, three kinds of records open to choice:

- (1) Photographic records.
- (2) Records on smoked paper.
- (3) Ink records on paper.

The photographic record is, unquestionably, the most elegant and perfect of all, and, under proper arrangements, is available for an almost unlimited range of work. The imponderable pencil of light is, of course, absolutely devoid of friction and imposes no constraint upon the steady mass, whatever the magnification may be. The chief objections to photographic registration are found in the considerations of expense for paper, in some difficulties involved in development of records, and in the fact that the record is invisible until developed.

The smoked-paper records are undoubtedly of the most valuable kind, not only because of their cheapness, but because of the remarkable detail and completeness of the whole result. The chief objection against them lies in the question of the friction, but even this is of no consequence whatever for small magnifications, say ten to twenty times, or less. It is perfectly easy in these cases to employ steady masses of reasonable weight and yet sufficient to render the friction effect unimportant. With higher magnifications, especially of one hundred times and more, and with long periods, the advantages of the smoked-paper records largely vanish, not only because the high magnification requires a steady mass of great weight, but because the multiplying lever system must be compounded, involving several joints and more friction and increased opportunity for lost motion. Finally, there is the difficulty of retaining the perfect freedom of the steady mass while it actuates a lever system of high magnification. All these difficulties vanish completely when we adopt the photographic method of registration for high magnifications and retain the mechanical recorder for low magnifications.

The pen and ink record is quite unavailable for high magnifications, not only because of the fundamental objections given above to the mechanical devices for multiplying the motion, but still further because of the greater friction at the writing point. There are other difficulties of a mechanical nature in providing and maintaining the pens themselves and the ink supply. Quite satisfactory solutions for these difficulties are, however, possible, with magnifications of two to ten times, and the writer has used this system quite extensively. His preference, however, is distinctly in favor of the smoked-paper record, as the danger of losing a record by the stoppage of the ink or otherwise during a destructive earthquake is very much greater with the ink record than in the case of a stylus writing on smoked paper.

In the light of all these considerations, we find ourselves led to the following conclusions, namely, that in a universal seismograph we must provide:

(1) A highly magnified record (one hundred to one hundred and fifty times), which is best realized by photographic processes, which entail no friction and no constraint whatever on the steady mass, and

(2) A slightly magnified record (two to five times, or even full size), of mechanical character, by pen and ink or, preferably, on smoked paper.

Such a system of duplex records from a single steady mass is a perfectly simple and practicable realization of a universal seismograph for horizontal motion. Any seismic vibrations of a reasonable period that are revealed under a magnification of one hundred to one hundred and fifty times, or that do not exceed the 3-inch limit of motion, can hardly fail to be recorded on one or the other of the recorders or on both. If the moving spot of light goes off the sheet, even if it sweeps the entire circumference of the room, no harm is done, and, on the other hand, the pen of the mechanical recorder with small magnification need never go beyond the margins of the sheet. We therefore never fail to get the record in its entirety.

The general arrangement of devices by which all these results are accomplished is shown diagrammatically in fig. 8.

Speed of paper.—Thus far we have said nothing as regards the proper speed of the record sheet. This, however, is very

important. What we require here is simply that the waves be drawn out so as to be fairly well separated. On the other hand, too rapid a motion involves a large expenditure of material and labor in maintenance. A speed of 90 centimeters, 35 inches, per hour is a speed commonly used and seems to answer all requirements, except for the case of destructive earthquakes. In such cases the periods of the earth motions are from one-tenth to one-twentieth those in distant earthquakes; hence we must increase the speed of the paper during destructive earthquakes to at least twenty times the ordinary speed.

The limited experience of the writer with damaging or sensible earthquakes does not enable him to decide definitely whether both recorders should be run at a high speed during damaging earthquakes or not. Such considerations as follow indicate a partial answer to this question.

If we take 4 inches as the maximum possible "throw" of the spot of light that can be registered on the photographic record, and assume a magnification of 100, we must have at such times a ground motion of .04 inch. If the period is one-half second, the maximum acceleration is—

$$I = \frac{4\pi^2 a}{t^2} = 6.4 \text{ inches, or } 160 \text{ mm., per sec. per sec.}$$

This result indicates a disturbance of very slight intensity, even tho the highly magnified waves pass clear to the edges of the paper, or beyond, in the photographic record. Of course greater disturbances would be too large to appear on the photographic record under any circumstances. We are, therefore, of the opinion that for damaging shocks there is no necessity for high speed motion on the photographic, or highly magnified, record. The requirements of ordinary observational work are fully met by provision for high speed on the slightly magnified record only. That is to say, whenever there is a fairly strongly-felt earthquake the recording drum for the slightly magnified record must be run at a speed at least twenty times faster than its usual speed. For this purpose the high speed motion must be under the control of one of the numerous forms of seismoscopes, or starters, which set off the high speed motion whenever the intensity of the earthquake motion attains a certain fixt degree. Now the duration of sensible earthquakes is, as a rule, less than one minute. Therefore all reasonable demands will be met if, after the high speed motion has been started, it be stopt after a run of, say, three minutes. That is to say, the drum, having once been set going at the high speed, will automatically resume its slow speed at the expiration of three minutes, or any similar interval that may be judged sufficient. It is a simple matter to meet such a requirement and also to provide that the drum shall automatically assume the high speed and return to the ordinary speed as many times, within reasonable limits, as the circumstances may require.

Summarizing, we find, therefore, that having a perfectly free steady mass we are able to record every species of horizontal vibrations if we provide a set of duplex recorders—one photographic, with high magnification, and the other mechanical, with low magnification, the latter capable of running at a high speed for short runs whenever set off by a mechanical starter of appropriate design.

Additional requirements for satisfactory photographic registration.—The photographic records of earthquakes from ordinary seismographs are all very unsatisfactory. The record may be very fine and sharply inscribed as long as there is no earthquake. The very small earthquake waves are also finely recorded, but just as soon as the waves become large the trace gets fainter and presently vanishes from the record entirely, except at the very extremities of the waves. For a long time the writer regarded this as wholly unavoidable, for

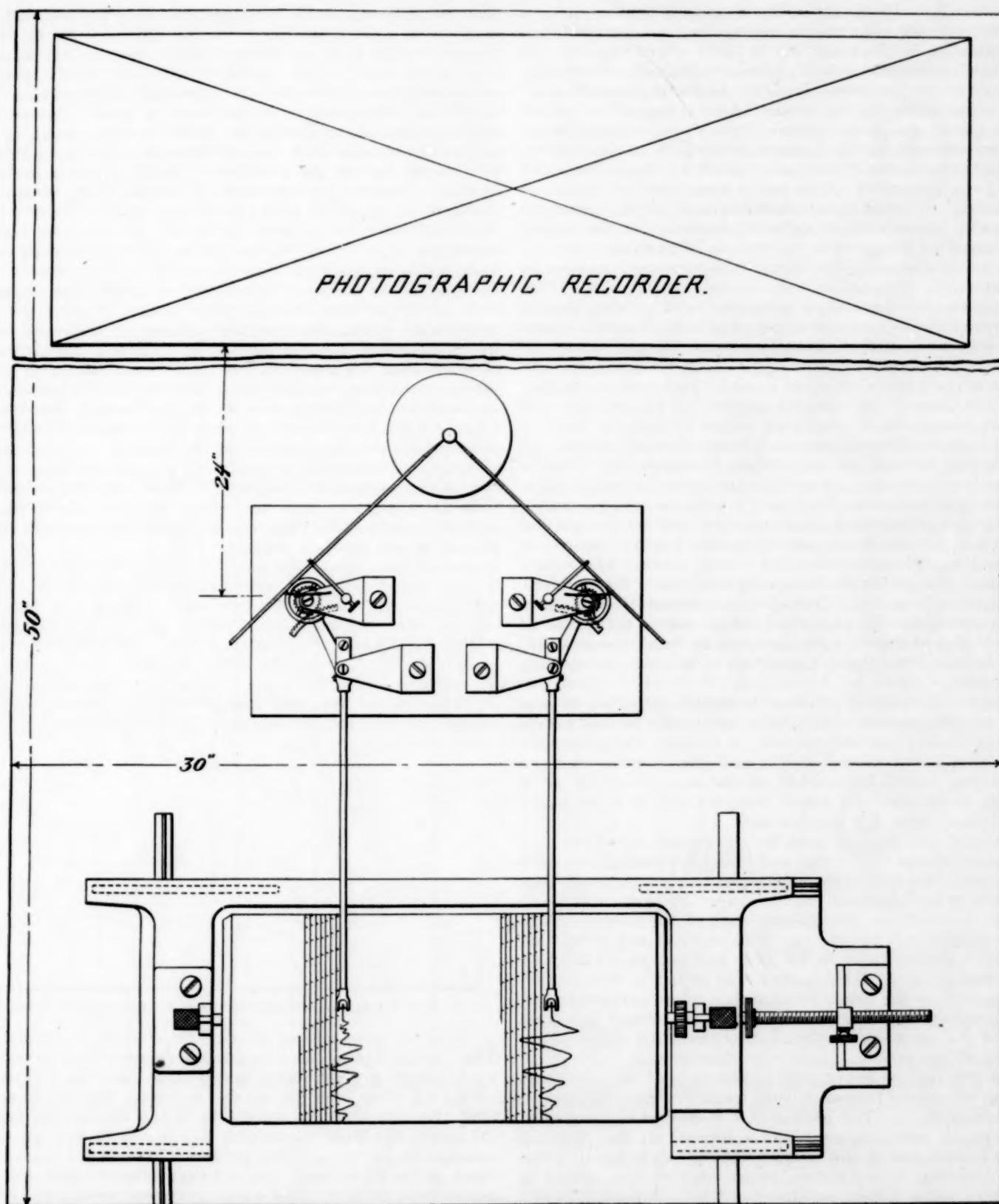


FIG. 8.—Diagrammatic view (plan) of universal seismograph, Marvin system.

some reason imperfectly understood, and he supposed that the photographic film would not take a record of the large wave motion without becoming fogged or blurred when the waves subsided. This idea was at once investigated when he saw the advantages and necessity of using the photographic record in the universal seismograph. The result of the test demon-

strated at once that the difficulty lies entirely with the light. The paper will stand many times the range of exposure required. In extreme cases of wave motion the velocity of the spot of light over the paper is something like 300 times as fast as the motion of the paper alone when the spot of light is at rest. Now the photographic record should show any wave

that comes within the limits of the sheet, and this requires a light 300 times stronger than necessary just to make the record in the absence of waves.

The chief reason why existing seismographs fail to get a full photographic record arises from the fact that to get the desired magnification the light and the photographic record sheet are placed at a great distance (10 to 15 feet in some cases) from the seismograph. A distance of 20 to 24 inches suffices in the design herein described, and something like a forty-fold advantage is gained on this account alone in the question of illumination. A great gain is also realized in the matter of sharpness of image, etc. Finally, it is easy to get the necessary intensity of illumination by the use of suitable combinations for concentrating the light from ordinary sources of illumination.

The results and conclusions presented in this paper are not simply speculations, but are based on actual mechanisms and experiments conducted with the large seismograph illustrated in fig. 4. The steady mass weighs about 1,300 pounds and serves to actuate two mechanical records, each with magnification of 120 times. The vertical support of the steady mass was made exceptionally long (total length 17 feet), in order to test and experiment with certain phases of seismograph construction that we have not as yet fully investigated. Numerous records with pen and ink and the highly magnified smoked-paper records have been secured day by day for some two months past, and our conclusions are thus derived from actual experience. A new instrument with the duplex records is under construction and will embody every feature finally perfected and developed in the foregoing analysis of the problem.

Description of recorder.—It seems unnecessary to enter into details concerning the recorders, since such a multitude of devices of this character are in common use on all classes of instruments that it is largely a question of selecting something to one's taste.

After a considerable experience the writer is inclined to prefer for seismic records that form in which the record sheets are in the shape of an endless belt, or ribbon. Seismographs require large, long, record sheets, and this is easily realized in the ribbon or belt form, while at the same time the clock drum can be of relatively small diameter, and thus be easier to handle and drive at a regular rate.

The use of the endless band for the record sheet requires some simple means of joining and easily separating the ends of the sheet. An admirable scheme for this purpose has been suggested by my assistant, Mr. Maring. Four or more small holes are punched in the opposite ends of the sheet, so as to register exactly, and the ends are then overlapt and a very thin and narrow metal ribbon, *m*, laced in and out thru the holes, as indicated in fig. 9. This is admirably suited to the smoked-paper records, as the small metal ribbon offers only the slightest obstruction to the stylus, and when the record has been inscribed the ends can be detached without the slightest obliteration of the record.

Still a different means of joining the ends of the paper and giving an even smoother seam with some other advantages, is also shown in fig. 9. Two gashes *a b*, *a' b'* are first cut in one end of the paper, and tongues *t* and *t'* formed on the opposite end are interlocked in the manner shown. It is hardly practicable, however, to separate a soot-coated ribbon united in this fashion without defacing the record, but the method is well adapted to ink and photographic records.

A very great economy of paper is realized by the well-known method of traversing the sheet several times with a slight lateral displacement of each succeeding trace. This, however, introduces mechanical difficulties in the design of the clock and drum in order to secure the lateral shift necessary. To the writer it seems decidedly best to mount the clock and drum on a small carriage which itself shifts endwise, rather

than to follow the usual construction. Only in this way is it possible to realize the best results, that is, (1) the whole recorder can be made the most compact possible; (2) the drum and its axis can be made most cheaply and of the simplest construction; (3) the clock can most easily drive such a drum smoothly and regularly; (4) the endwise motion can be more easily effected and a greater amount of motion provided for; (5) two components of motion on large records side by side can be obtained on a single drum, thus securing compactness and avoiding unnecessary expense for separate clocks, drums, etc.

A general design for such a recorder is shown in fig. 10. The clock and drum are mounted in definite and positive working relation to each other on the carriage *A*, which runs on the usual small steel balls, giving the easiest kind of motion. The endwise motion is given by the screw *S*, which is connected with a suitable wheel in the clock train. A point of special merit in this arrangement is the peculiar nut employed. This nut is carried on the bracket *B*. The screw *S* passes loosely thru a hole in the top of *B*. A small worm wheel, *W*, is inserted into a recess milled out in the top of *B* in such a manner as to engage the threads of the screw, and thus serve as a nut. A thumbscrew is now provided by means of which the worm wheel can be clamped in its recess, in which case the carriage and drum are locked and can move endwise only as the clock revolves the screw *S*. When the thumbscrew is loosened a part of a turn, the worm wheel is free to revolve, and the drum and carriage can be shifted endwise at pleasure and set in any position desired.

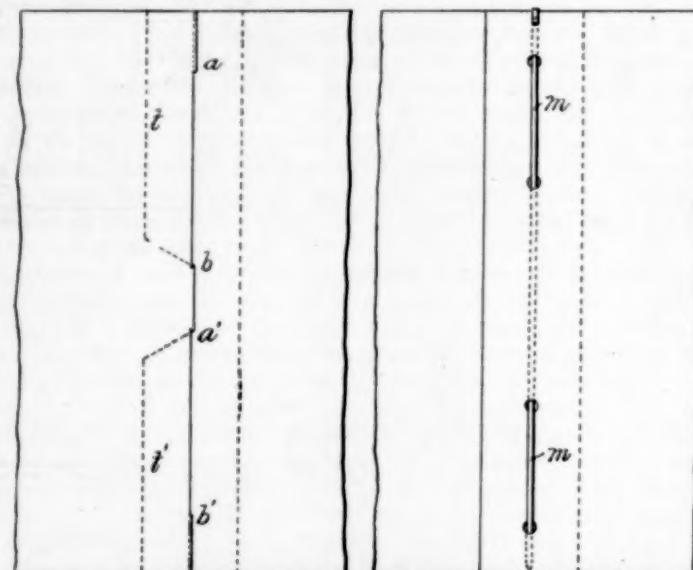


FIG. 9.—Methods of joining the ends of the record sheet.

Two-speed movement of drum.—As already explained, the drum must revolve at a rapid rate (about 0.2 of an inch per second) during destructive earthquakes, and at a slow rate (about 0.6 of an inch per minute) at other times. To accomplish this alteration of speeds from the slow to the fast and the fast to the slow, we employ a clock with two governors attached to the train. One governor permits the clock to run down at the slow speed; the ordinary balance-wheel and lever escapement, in fact. The other governor ordinarily is held in check, and is released whenever an earthquake occurs of sufficient intensity to require the high-speed motion. When this train has run at the high speed for three minutes of time, it automatically stops. The slow speed governor, which has been running all the time, thereupon resumes control of the rate of motion.

The exact form of clock with duplex governor now being constructed will be described at some subsequent time, also

the very simple devices employed to start and stop the high speed and mark the time on the record sheets.

IV. DAMPING.

General requirements.—If we fix our attention again on the second type of steady mass previously described, that is, the simple inverted pendulum, we may regard twenty to thirty seconds as a good working period that may be realized. As we have already indicated, such a steady mass will not, ordinarily, remain at rest satisfactorily when subjected to long-period ground motions, and some expedient must be resorted to in order to overcome this difficulty, if possible. With this object in view, the German seismologists, especially, have introduced various methods of damping the motions of the steady mass. We must not regard damping as broadly beneficial; it is more in the nature of a necessary evil. It does not help the steady mass to remain at rest; indeed damping tends to set the steady mass in motion. Nevertheless, the motion thus set up is controlled in such a fashion that under certain assumptions we can compute from the record with more or less exactness the actual motions of the steady mass, or rather the true motions of the ground. The assumptions we are obliged to make do not always fit the facts satisfactorily, and the results are accordingly inexact. Damping, therefore, is to be shunned, rather than otherwise, and used just as sparingly as possible. The only way this can be accomplished is to use a form of steady mass whose period is the longest practicable, consistent with other desirable results.

It is important that a clear idea be formed of the nature of damping in its most desirable form. Damping in any form is some sort of resistance that opposes, but at the same time permits, relative motion between the steady mass and its immediate environment. The resistance may be offered by the motion of blades or paddles submerged in a liquid, for example, or by vanes of appropriate arrangement that fan the air in a certain sense. The resistance may even be derived from electro-magnetic reactions. Instruments in which no particu-

lar devices for damping are employed are, nevertheless, often very strongly damped by friction, especially in the levers and linkages and at the point of the stylus employed in magnifying and inscribing the record. This frictional damping is perhaps the most objectionable of all, because it does not conform to any available mathematical law for the computation of the desired results.

Damping to be beneficial must strongly oppose large and rapid motion of the steady mass, but at the same time it must not offer the slightest resistance to the steady mass slowly assuming perfectly its position of equilibrium. This is realized in the resistance of vanes moving either in some liquid, or better in confined air spaces. The appropriate mathematical expression of course affords the most complete and elegant definition of the nature and effect of damping. In the absence of earthquake motion the record traced by a seismograph under some kind of fluid or electro-magnetic damping, when the steady mass has been displaced, is represented by an equation of this form:

$$x = Ae^{-\epsilon t} \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{T} + a \right)$$

x is the ordinate of the curve at any time t ; ϵ is the measure of the damping; A and a are constants, T is the period of the damped oscillations.

Broadly speaking, strong damping has the effect on a seismograph of making the magnifying scale of the record depend on the *period* of motion registered, so that only short-period waves, which as a rule are met with only in damaging or felt earthquakes, are registered approximately fully magnified, whereas the slow waves, which are of frequent occurrence in all long-distance earthquakes, are magnified only very slightly, and as a consequence the *small* slow waves may be lost altogether. In some cases the damping may also be a function of the *amplitude* as well as the *period* of the waves, and the mathematics of the problem becomes very complex. These are some of the reasons which make damping objectionable.

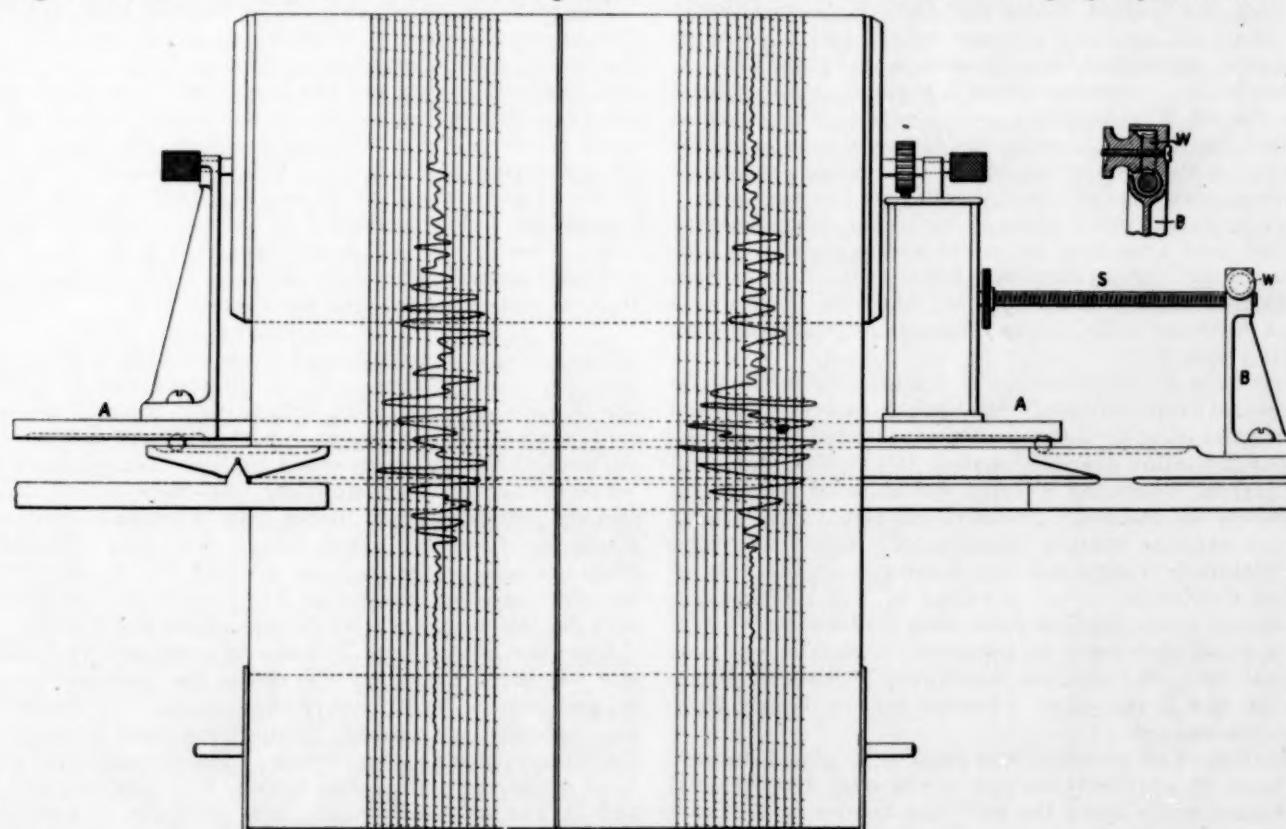


FIG. 10.—Front elevation of recording drum and carriage, Marvin system.

It should be clearly understood that strong damping by friction is fundamentally undesirable, since all small waves are lost altogether, and large motions are only slightly controlled by the friction. Strong damping, even if of a nature that satisfies the equation given above, is still undesirable, because small slow waves are likely to be lost altogether, and larger slow ones are not sufficiently magnified. Nevertheless, when the damping is of this sort, and its magnitude ϵ in the equation is known, we can compute under certain favorable conditions the actual magnitude of the ground movements. Finally, when friction and damping are both quite small, the instrument is highly sensitive to all minute disturbances, especially motions of nearly its own period. Such motions, however, are likely to be recorded on a greatly exaggerated scale. In general, the deductions and conclusions from a record made on a frictionless instrument of moderate period only slightly damped must be very carefully drawn. The steady mass in these cases acquires certain of the properties of "sensitive masses" previously mentioned.

Galitzin has greatly developed and employed electro-magnetic devices for damping, and for this purpose attaches to the steady mass one or more heavy copper plates, which are free to move between the poles of an electro-magnet. When the magnet is energized, movements of the steady mass are more or less strongly damped by the generation of electric currents in the copper plates. By a suitable disposition of this apparatus the same investigator causes the electric currents thus generated to record photographically the character of the motion. As the velocity of the relative motion of the ground and the steady mass, not the displacement, is shown by the electric recorder, it seems the data furnished by such records are not in the most convenient form.

THE WEATHER OF THE MONTH.

By Mr. P. C. DAY, Assistant Chief, Division of Meteorological Records.

PRESSURE.

The distribution of mean atmospheric pressure for November, 1907, over the United States and Canada, is graphically shown on Chart VI, and the average values and departures from the normal are shown for each station in Tables I and V.

From October to November there is normally a substantial increase in the sea-level pressure over practically all portions of the United States and Canada, the increase being greatest over the interior districts, owing to the more rapid cooling of the continental area than of the districts near the seacoasts.

The increase in pressure during November over that for October, 1907, was more than twice the average over the central portions of the Plateau district, while over the Lake region, Ohio Valley, and middle Atlantic coast districts there was a pronounced decrease in the mean pressure as compared with the preceding month.

Over practically all districts in the United States from the Lake region and Ohio and lower Mississippi valleys westward to the Pacific the monthly mean pressure exceeded the normal, attaining the maximum over the central Rocky Mountain and Plateau districts, where an average pressure of more than 30.20 inches was maintained. Pressure was also comparatively high over the extreme eastern Canadian Provinces and over the lower Colorado Valley and the surrounding districts of Arizona and California. Over portions of the Lake region and the Atlantic coast districts from New England to Florida there was a small deficiency in pressure. Pressure was also below normal over the Canadian Northwest Territories, where at Edmonton the lowest mean pressure for the month, 29.90 inches, was maintained.

The distribution of pressure was such as to give a decided preponderance of northerly surface winds over the Atlantic and Gulf States, while along the northern border from North Dakota westward southerly winds modified the weather and ex-

The work of the present writer has thus far been directed very largely to the best methods of constructing the seismograph so as to secure what he has called earthquake-proof construction, universality, the longest practicable periods, etc., thereby reducing the necessity for damping to a minimum. It is intended, however, later on to investigate fully the effect of different forms and degrees of damping on actual instruments of the new design.

From a superficial examination of various actual records and effects from ordinary instruments, I find the damping often differs very widely in character from that represented by the logarithmic equation given above, and can not be represented by a simple exponent ϵ , such as is often employed in the reduction of observations. The subject is one requiring very careful attention.

PUBLICATION OF CLIMATOLOGICAL DATA FROM COOPERATIVE OBSERVERS.

It is anticipated that beginning with the issue of January, 1908, Table II and Table III will be omitted from the MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW.

Those desiring the data hitherto published in Table II for any State or Territory, or group of States, or for the whole country, may obtain them in the monthly reports of the appropriate section or sections of the Climatological Service of the Weather Bureau. Application for such reports may be addressed to "Chief U. S. Weather Bureau, Washington, D. C., for the Climatological Division", or to the officials in charge at the proper section centers.

tended their influence far to the northward over the Canadian Northwest Provinces.

The eastward movements of the areas of high and low pressure across the country were along paths generally south of the normal course, and large portions of the upper Mississippi and Missouri valleys and the slope region were not under the influence of any decided storm movement during the month. As a result of the southward trend of the storm tracks, the wind movement along the Gulf and Atlantic coasts was in excess of the normal, while over the districts from the middle Mississippi Valley westward there was a general diminution of wind movement, which was especially pronounced over the southern slope, where the velocities of the wind ranged from 10 to 40 per cent less than the average.

TEMPERATURE.

The unusual congestion of areas of high and low pressure over the Gulf States and the preponderance of northerly winds, with an excess of cloud and rain, brought unseasonably cold weather over the greater part of Texas and the southern portions of the cotton-growing States. Temperature was also below the normal over the lower Lake region, the Ohio Valley, and the Atlantic coast States from Florida to southern New England. Over the upper Lakes, the upper Mississippi and Missouri valleys, the districts west of the Rocky Mountains, and the Canadian Northwest Territories the average temperature for the month was uniformly above the normal.

Over the States from Minnesota westward to Idaho and in the adjoining Canadian Provinces the average temperature ranged from 6° to 10° above the normal. No severe cold was experienced and outdoor occupations were pursued throughout the month without interruption. Temperature was also somewhat above the normal over central New England and Florida, and it was unusually warm over portions of southern California. Maximum temperatures between 80° and 90° oc-

curred over Florida, the immediate Gulf coast, and the southern portions of Arizona and California, while over the Lake region and New England they ranged from 50° to 60°, and at a few points were slightly less than 50°. Temperatures below zero were confined to the portion of North Dakota east of the Missouri River and the adjoining portions of Minnesota and to points in the higher levels of the mountain regions of Wyoming and Colorado.

While no severe cold waves overspread the northern districts, unusually cold weather penetrated the Gulf States about the middle of the month, and temperatures of 32° or lower were recorded to the coast line and into northern Florida. No frosts occurred over the southern portion of Arizona, the lower levels of California, or along the coasts of Oregon and Washington.

PRECIPITATION.

Heavy rainfall, from 6 to 10 inches, occurred over eastern and central Texas, central and southern Arkansas and western Louisiana, also over a narrow area from southern Mississippi thru central Alabama to northwestern Georgia.

Amounts slightly above 6 inches were general along the Atlantic coast from Chesapeake Bay to southern New England, and from 6 to 10 inches along the coast districts of Oregon and Washington. Over the western slopes of the Coast and Cascade ranges in those States the fall was heavy, ranging from 10 to 25 inches at exposed points.

Precipitation was from 4 to 6 inches above the normal over the central parts of Texas, Arkansas, and Alabama, and generally more than 2 inches above over all districts from Texas northeastward over the cotton region States, Tennessee, the Middle Atlantic States, and New England. Along the immediate Atlantic coast from Virginia southward, including the Florida Peninsula, precipitation was below the normal, and a general deficiency prevailed over the Lake region, the Ohio Valley, and all districts west of the Mississippi Valley, except over the greater part of Texas and at points on the western slopes of the Coast and Cascade ranges of Washington and Oregon. Over a large portion of California and western Washington the deficiency amounted to from 2 to 3 inches.

Thruout the entire mountain and Plateau districts, the Great Plains from the Texas panhandle northward to Canada, and the upper Mississippi Valley, the amounts of precipitation for the month were generally less than one inch and occurred mostly in the form of light showers.

In California the progress of the rainy season, the opening of which occurred unusually early in October, was temporarily suspended during November, and in portions of the State it was the driest month of its name in many years.

The lack of moisture over the Florida Peninsula noted in the previous month continued till near the end of November, when general rains relieved the droughty conditions.

Generous and well-distributed amounts of precipitation occurred over the Gulf States, Appalachian Mountain districts, and New England, and rain was almost continuous during the latter half of the month over the western portions of Oregon and Washington.

SNOWFALL.

Snow, in small amounts generally, occurred over nearly all portions of the United States, the exceptions being the Atlantic coast districts south of Virginia, the greater part of the Gulf States, the lower elevations of New Mexico, Arizona, and California, and the western portions of Oregon and Washington. Depths of 12 inches or more occurred in the White and Adirondack and in the higher elevations of the Appalachian mountains, over upper Michigan and along the western slopes of the Main Divide from Idaho to New Mexico. There was also considerable snow in the mountains of Oregon, but over the greater part of the Mountain and Plateau districts, the Great Plains, central valleys, and Lake region, the total fall for the month was generally less than 1 inch.

At the end of the month the high western slopes of the mountains of northern Idaho were covered to depths of several feet, and there was considerable snow in the interior of New England, in the mountainous portions of northern New York, and over the upper Lake region; elsewhere but little snow remained on the ground.

HUMIDITY AND SUNSHINE.

The relative amount of moisture in the atmosphere was decidedly less than the average over the entire Mississippi and Missouri valleys, the north Pacific coast, and at points on the Atlantic coast.

Over the central and southern Plateau and Rocky Mountain districts and in western Texas the relative humidity, as in October and the preceding months of the year, was far above the average. Over western Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, and portions of California, Colorado, and Utah, it ranged from 10 to 25 per cent above the normal.

Cloudy weather was general from the Lake region and Ohio Valley eastward over the Middle Atlantic and New England States, over the greater part of Texas and the western portions of Oregon and Washington, where the amount of clouds ranged from 70 to 80 per cent of the possible.

Over the middle Mississippi and Missouri valleys, the slope, mountain, and Plateau districts, there was a uniform absence of clouds and the amount of sunshine ranged from 60 to 80 per cent of the possible.

As a whole, November, 1907, was a cold, disagreeable month over the Gulf and portions of the Atlantic coast districts; but over the States of the corn belt and nearly all portions of the mountain, Plateau, and central and southern Pacific coast districts the weather was uniformly warm and dry, with an abundance of sunshine.

WEATHER IN ALASKA.

A severe cold wave for the season overspread the upper Yukon and the Copper River plateau during the first week of the month, with minimum temperatures from 30° to 40° below zero.

During the period from the 10th to the 20th mild and generally fair weather prevailed, but from the latter date to the end of the month cold weather again prevailed, the minimum temperatures ranging from 15° to 35° below zero and the maximum from zero to 15° below.

Over the southeastern and southern districts the weather continued mild, with about the normal amount of precipitation and the usual number of cloudy days. But little snow appears to have fallen in the interior districts, and the depth on ground had probably increased but little over that at the end of the preceding month.

Average temperatures and departures from the normal.

Districts.	Number of stations.	Average temperatures for the current month.	Departures for the current month.	Accumulated departures since January 1.	Average departures since January 1.
New England	12	40.2	+ 0.6	-23.0	- 2.1
Middle Atlantic	16	44.2	- 0.2	-15.8	- 1.4
South Atlantic	10	53.5	- 0.6	+ 4.8	+ 0.4
Florida Peninsula*	8	67.5	+ 1.1	+12.6	+ 1.1
East Gulf	11	54.2	- 1.5	+14.6	+ 1.3
West Gulf	10	53.8	- 2.1	+18.3	+ 1.7
Ohio Valley and Tennessee	13	44.0	- 1.2	- 6.5	- 0.6
Lower Lake	10	33.5	- 0.4	-22.5	- 2.0
Upper Lake	12	35.1	+ 1.0	-14.6	- 1.3
North Dakota*	9	30.0	+ 6.1	-19.7	- 1.8
Upper Mississippi Valley	15	39.0	+ 1.2	- 9.0	- 0.8
Missouri Valley	12	40.0	+ 2.6	+ 0.2	0.0
Northern Slope	9	35.1	+ 3.4	- 4.1	- 0.4
Middle Slope	6	42.4	+ 0.6	+12.1	+ 1.1
Southern Slope*	7	48.0	- 2.0	+17.2	+ 1.6
Southern Plateau*	12	47.4	- 0.2	+ 0.7	+ 0.1
Middle Plateau*	10	37.4	+ 0.1	+10.2	+ 0.9
Northern Plateau*	12	39.9	+ 3.2	+ 0.2	0.0
North Pacific	7	47.7	+ 2.6	+ 0.9	+ 0.1
Middle Pacific	8	54.6	+ 1.0	- 1.0	- 0.1
South Pacific	4	59.6	+ 2.6	+ 7.2	+ 0.7

* Regular Weather Bureau and selected cooperative stations.

In Canada.—Director R. F. Stupart says:

The mean temperature of November was higher than the average throughout the Western Provinces and in British Columbia, the widest departure, about 10° , occurring in Alberta and Saskatchewan. In Ontario the departure was very generally negative by 1° or 2° , while in Quebec and the Maritime Provinces the mean of the month ranged from just average to 2° above. From Ontario to the Maritime Provinces there were but two fairly pronounced cool periods, namely, from the 12th to the 16th, and again during the last few days of the month.

Average precipitation and departures from the normal.

Districts.	Number of stations	Average.		Departure.	
		Current month.	Percent-age of normal.	Current month.	Accumulated since Jan. 1.
New England	12	4.79	133	+1.2	-1.9
Middle Atlantic	16	4.31	160	+1.5	-1.8
South Atlantic	10	3.23	114	+0.4	-11.0
Florida Peninsula*	8	1.51	68	-0.7	-9.5
East Gulf	11	5.76	162	+2.2	-1.5
West Gulf	10	6.24	181	+2.8	-5.2
Ohio Valley and Tennessee	13	8.26	94	-0.2	-2.2
Lower Lake	10	2.12	70	-0.9	-1.7
Upper Lake	12	1.74	71	-0.7	-2.6
North Dakota	9	0.11	14	-0.7	-1.9
Upper Mississippi Valley	15	1.52	72	-0.6	+1.4
Missouri Valley	12	0.70	58	-0.5	-2.9
Northern Slope	9	0.36	42	-0.5	+0.4
Middle Slope	6	0.42	46	-0.5	-1.7
Southern Slope*	7	1.45	94	-0.1	-0.5
Southern Plateau*	12	0.32	44	-0.4	+3.4
Middle Plateau*	10	0.29	33	-0.6	+1.6
Northern Plateau*	12	1.01	68	-0.6	+1.0
North Pacific	7	6.07	85	-1.2	-11.1
Middle Pacific	8	0.46	16	-2.5	+0.3
South Pacific	4	0.02	2	-1.2	+1.3

* Regular Weather Bureau and selected cooperative stations.

In Canada.—Director Stupart says:

The precipitation was heavy over the lower mainland of British Columbia and comparatively light on the upper mainland; 13.4 inches were recorded at Vancouver, 8.4 inches at Agassiz, and but 0.6 inch at Kamloops. In the Western Provinces it was almost nil, ranging from just a few snow flurries in Alberta to an aggregate of 0.15 inch of rain and about 4 inches of snow in Manitoba. Over the greater portion of Ontario the precipitation was part rain and part snow, but chiefly the former. It was generally in excess of the average, except near the shore lines of the lakes, where there was a small deficiency. In Quebec and the Maritime Provinces departures from the average amount were not pronounced, except in Prince Edward Island, where the quantity recorded was much below the average and decidedly less than in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.

At the close of the month there was a light covering of snow over the whole of Quebec and over the larger portion of Ontario, while in parts of this latter province east and north of the Georgian Bay as much as 12 inches was reported. In northern New Brunswick there was also a light covering, but farther south and including Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia there was but a trace here and there. In Manitoba there was from half an inch to 2 inches, but farther west all the prairie lands were quite bare, as were also the lower levels in British Columbia.

Average relative humidity and departures from the normal.

Districts.	Average.	Departure from the normal.	Districts.	Average.	Departure from the normal.
New England	77	+ 1	Missouri Valley	72	- 2
Middle Atlantic	77	+ 2	Northern Slope	68	+ 1
South Atlantic	78	0	Middle Slope	65	+ 3
Florida Peninsula	80	0	Southern Slope	78	+ 14
East Gulf	73	- 3	Southern Plateau	61	+ 16
West Gulf	73	- 1	Middle Plateau	62	+ 8
Ohio Valley and Tennessee	72	- 1	Northern Plateau	69	- 3
Lower Lake	78	+ 1	North Pacific	87	+ 3
Upper Lake	77	- 3	Middle Pacific	70	- 2
North Dakota	76	- 3	South Pacific	66	- 1
Upper Mississippi Valley	72	- 2			

Average cloudiness and departures from the normal.

Districts.	Average.	Departure from the normal.	Districts.	Average.	Departure from the normal.
New England	6.6	+ 1.0	Missouri Valley	4.0	- 0.9
Middle Atlantic	6.3	+ 1.1	Northern Slope	4.2	- 0.4
South Atlantic	5.4	+ 0.9	Middle Slope	3.4	- 0.2
Florida Peninsula	4.4	- 0.2	Southern Slope	5.8	+ 2.1
East Gulf	5.4	+ 0.9	Southern Plateau	2.9	+ 0.7
West Gulf	5.1	+ 0.5	Middle Plateau	3.2	- 0.2
Ohio Valley and Tennessee	5.7	0.0	Northern Plateau	5.3	- 0.5
Lower Lake	7.3	+ 0.1	North Pacific	7.1	- 0.6
Upper Lake	6.7	- 0.3	Middle Pacific	4.1	+ 0.1
North Dakota	4.9	- 0.4	South Pacific	2.4	- 0.8
Upper Mississippi Valley	4.3	- 1.0			

Maximum wind velocities.

Stations.	Date.	Velocity.	Direction.	Stations.	Date.	Velocity.	Direction.
Atlanta, Ga.	6	50	n.w.	Nantucket, Mass.	6	68	e.
Block Island, R. I.	6	64	ne.	Do.	7	50	sw.
Do.	7	51	w.	Do.	24	56	ne.
Do.	24	70	ne.	Do.	25	55	ne.
Do.	25	64	ne.	New York, N. Y.	14	52	n.w.
Buffalo, N. Y.	13	60	sw.	North Head, Wash.	1	60	se.
Do.	21	51	s.	Do.	18	60	se.
Do.	28	59	w.	Do.	19	68	se.
Chicago, Ill.	20	52	sw.	Do.	20	60	s.
Cleveland, Ohio	6	52	nw.	Do.	21	52	s.
Concord, N. H.	6	50	ne.	Do.	23	64	s.
Detroit, Mich.	21	50	s.	Do.	25	74	s.
Eastport, Me.	3	50	s.	Do.	28	62	se.
Do.	6	58	e.	Point Reyes Light, Cal.	13	64	n.w.
Do.	7	60	e.	Do.	16	70	n.w.
Do.	25	54	e.	Do.	17	69	n.w.
Erie, Pa.	20	55	se.	Do.	19	50	n.w.
Hatteras, N. C.	6	58	w.	Seattle, Wash.	23	51	s.
Do.	7	50	nw.	Southeast Farallon, Cal.	17	55	n.w.
Mount Tamalpais, Cal.	13	52	nw.	Tatoosh Island, Wash.	1	60	s.
Do.	17	51	n.	Do.	2	56	sw.
Do.	18	53	n.	Do.	3	60	s.
Do.	19	58	nw.	Do.	4	60	s.
Do.	20	52	nw.	Do.	8	54	e.
Do.	23	50	nw.	Do.	9	54	e.
Mount Weather, Va.	3	52	nw.	Do.	18	60	s.
Do.	6	57	w.	Do.	21	60	s.
Do.	7	64	w.	Do.	23	53	sw.
Do.	26	58	nw.	Do.	25	72	s.
Do.	27	56	nw.	Do.	28	64	s.
				Toledo, Ohio.	21	53	s.

CLIMATOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

By Mr. JAMES BERRY, Chief of the Climatological Division.

TEMPERATURE AND PRECIPITATION BY SECTIONS, NOVEMBER, 1907.

In the following table are given, for the various sections of the Climatological Service of the Weather Bureau, the average temperature and rainfall, the stations reporting the highest and lowest temperatures with dates of occurrence, the stations reporting greatest and least monthly precipitation, and other data, as indicated by the several headings.

The mean temperatures for each section, the highest and

lowest temperatures, the average precipitation, and the greatest and least monthly amounts are found by using all trustworthy records available.

The mean departures from normal temperature and precipitation are based only on records from stations that have ten or more years of observation. Of course the number of such records is smaller than the total number of stations.

Section.	Temperature—in degrees Fahrenheit.								Precipitation—in inches and hundredths.							
	Section average.	Departure from the normal.	Monthly extremes.				Section average.	Departure from the normal.	Greatest monthly.		Least monthly.		Station.	Amount.	Station.	Amount.
			Station.	Highest.	Date.	Station.			Station.	Amount.	Station.	Amount.				
Alabama	51.4	- 2.1	Goodwater	82	92	Valley Head	16	15, 16	Mobile	9.90	Flomaton	2.50				
Arizona	53.1	- 0.8	Wetumpka	82	95	Chlarsons Mill	9	24	Huachuca Reservoir	4.78	5 stations	0.00				
Arkansas	49.0	- 1.6	Parker	92	4	Pond	10	13	Benton	9.32	Pond	1.97				
California	53.7	+ 1.0	Benton	84	5	Tamarack	4	18	Monumental	8.77	Many stations	0.00				
Colorado	33.3	- 1.1	3 stations	92	2, 5	Wagonwheel Gap	-14	21	Rocky Ford	2.00	Alamoso	0.00				
Florida	64.7	- 0.8	Holly	79	6	Molino	26	14	Wauna	18.63	Orlando	0.29				
Georgia	52.9	- 1.5	Orange City	92	22	Greenbush	21	15	Clayton	8.77	St. Marys	1.07				
Hawaii	71.2	—	Quitman	90	22	Humula, Hawaii	36	26	Honomanu Val. Maui	25.04	2 stations	0.00				
Idaho	36.9	+ 1.1	Kihel, Maui	89	1, 4	Roosevelt	-3	26	Wallace	5.37	Driggs	0.05				
Illinois	40.1	- 0.5	Hotsping	67	13	Dixon	4	16	Cobden	5.17	La Harpe	0.90				
Indiana	39.7	- 1.7	Mount Vernon	73	5	Northfield	11	16	Mount Vernon	4.83	Lafayette	1.32				
Iowa	36.7	+ 1.3	Rome	75	8	Elma	-4	14	Logan	2.27	Sioux City	0.05				
Kansas	42.6	+ 0.1	Baxter	68	6	Norton	-4	12	Oswego	2.23	T	T				
Kentucky	44.2	- 2.3	Anthony	82	8	Farmers	15	30	Blandville	5.47	Frankfort	1.21				
Louisiana	55.6	- 3.3	3 stations	75	5, 8, 9	Minden	17	18, 14	Logansport	10.32	Robeline	3.25				
Maryland and Delaware	43.1	- 0.4	College Park, Md.	70	2	Plain Dealing	17	13	Delaware City, Del.	3.30	Plymouth	0.35				
Michigan	35.2	- 0.5	Millsboro, Del.	70	9	Deer Park, Md.	10	30	South Haven	5.84	2 stations	T				
Minnesota	31.7	+ 2.8	Coldwater	65	1	Humboldt	-3	16	Caledonia	1.40	Clarksville	3.18				
Mississippi	51.9	- 2.8	New Ulm	62	17	Blackduck	-8	30	Waynesboro	9.40	Sublett	0.55				
Missouri	43.8	- 0.1	St. Charles	62	4	Hallock	-8	29	Snowshoe	9.03	3 stations	0.00				
Montana	35.8	+ 4.8	Aberdeen	85	5	Fayette	16	14	Syracuse	2.12	8 stations	0.00				
Nebraska	37.0	+ 0.4	Eldorado Springs	88	7	Houston	7	13	Austin	1.00	9 stations	0.00				
Nevada	40.2	+ 0.9	Billings	72	6	Busby	-7	11	Fenelon	1.00	Houlton, Me.	2.10				
New England*	38.0	0.0	Callaway	77	6	Jordan	-11	12	Kingston, R. I.	8.63	Hightstown	4.19				
New Jersey	43.5	0.0	Oakland	77	1	Scottsbluff	-11	12	Egg Harbor City	6.95	San Marcial	T				
New Mexico	40.5	- 1.9	Las Vegas	78	1	McAfee Ranch	-1	29	Cloudcroft	4.00	Chazy	1.08				
New York	36.8	- 0.4	Logan	78	1	Dyer	0	20	Ticonderoga	7.95	Clinton	1.58				
North Carolina	48.2	- 1.4	Millinocket, Me.	69	3	Banners Elk	15	30	Horse Cove	9.22	Edmore	0.60				
North Dakota	30.2	+ 6.0	Brownsville Mills	68	5, 9	Pratt	15	14	Jacksonburg	3.58	2 stations	0.00				
Ohio	39.1	- 1.9	4 stations	80	4 dates	Bladensburg	11	15	Idabel	5.22	Oberlin	0.72				
Oklahoma	47.7	- 1.8	Cutchogue	68	3	Kenton	6	12	Glenora	25.45	Harrington	0.17				
Oregon	44.3	+ 1.7	Clinton	80	22	Silver Lake	11	20	Clinton	1.58	Huntington	0.01				
Pennsylvania	39.8	- 0.7	Southern Pines	80	8	Wamic	11	18	Coatesville	7.52	Erie	1.05				
Porto Rico	76.4	—	Derry Station	70	21	Pocono Lake	4	30	Sabana Grande	20.04	Guayama	0.56				
South Carolina	52.2	- 1.9	Central Aguirre	98	13	Albonite	46	29	Greenwood	8.25	Charleston	1.22				
South Dakota	34.9	+ 3.5	Anderson	87	5	Dillon	24	14	Vermillion	0.25	2 stations	0.00				
Tennessee	46.5	- 1.6	Philip	79	6	Saluda	24	15	Loudon	6.55	Elizabethhton	3.15				
Texas	53.3	- 3.3	Ashwood	79	8	Rugby	12	14	Crockett	13.60	Channing	0.29				
Utah	37.4	- 0.6	Falfurrias	90	9	Plemons	7	12	Sunnyside	0.80	St. George	0.00				
Virginia	44.7	- 1.5	Richfield	79	11	Loa	-8	18	Leonard	7.05	Marion	2.94				
Washington	43.7	+ 2.7	Springdale	79	9	Burkes Garden	13	17	Big Stone Gap	8.35	Sunnyside	0.19				
West Virginia	41.8	- 1.6	Norfolk	76	8	Northport	10	27	Clearwater	26.22	Crandon	0.20				
Wisconsin	33.8	+ 1.0	Ephrata	78	2	4 stations	13	dates	Spence	1.41	Lusk	0.00				
Wyoming	32.3	+ 0.7	Doane	74	8	Prentice	0	14	1.20	- 0.42	Sturgeon Bay	2.26				
			Logan	74	8	Fort Laramie	-14	12	1.20	- 0.27	Snake River, Y. N. P.	1.41				

* Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

† 51 stations, with an average elevation of 701 feet.

‡ 144 stations.

DESCRIPTION OF TABLES AND CHARTS.

By Mr. P. C. DAY, Assistant Chief, Division of Meteorological Records.

For description of tables and charts see page 30 of REVIEW for January, 1907.

MONTHLY WEATHER REVIEW.

NOVEMBER, 1907

TABLE I.—Climatological data for U. S. Weather Bureau stations, November, 1907.

Stations.	Elevation of instruments.			Pressure, in inches.		Temperature of the air, in degrees Fahrenheit.						Precipitation, in inches.			Wind.								
	Barometer above sea level, feet.	Thermometers above ground.	Anemometer above ground.	Actual, reduced to mean of 24 hours.	Sea level, reduced to mean of 24 hrs.	Departure from normal.	Mean max. + mean min. + 2.	Departure from normal.	Maximum.	Date.	Mean maximum.	Date.	Mean minimum.	Date.	Greatest daily range.	Total.	Departure from normal.	Days with 0.1 or more.	Total movement, miles.	Precipitation direction.	Miles per hour.	Maximum velocity.	Date.
New England.																							
Eastport.	76	69	85	29.94	30.05	+ .02	42.8	+ 1.3	57	3 43	18	30	33	17	4.79	+ 1.2	9	8,854	w.	60	e.	7 2 7 11 8.3 0.3	
Portland, Me.	103	81	117	29.92	30.04	+ .00	38.1	+ 0.4	57	3 44	21	30	32	20	2.55	+ 0.6	10	6,611	w.	48	ne.	6 12 7 11 5.3 2.4	
Concord.	288	70	79	29.72	30.04	- .02	36.6	- 0.2	57	3 44	15	30	29	31	4.07	+ 0.7	10	3,701	n.w.	50	ne.	6 15 4 11 4.8 1.7	
Burlington.	404	12	47	29.58	30.04	- .01	35.0	- 1.7	58	3 41	13	30	29	27	2.67	+ 0.1	12	8,372	s.	44	s.	21 1 7 22 8.2 12.4	
Northfield.	876	16	70	29.07	30.04	- .01	32.8	+ 0.8	58	3 41	4	30	24	35	3.32	+ 0.7	13	5,466	s.	46	ne.	3 3 4 23 8.0 8.9	
Boston.	125	115	185	29.90	30.04	- .01	45.2	+ 2.0	61	3 49	25	30	37	21	9.34	+ 1.9	10	7,669	w.	48	ne.	6 5 11 14 6.4	
Nantucket.	12	14	90	30.01	30.02	- .03	44.8	- 0.4	61	9 50	31	15	40	17	14.22	+ 2.5	14	13,590	n.w.	70	ne.	24 5 11 14 6.5 T	
Block Island.	26	11	46	30.00	30.03	- .03	45.0	- 0.3	59	3 49	31	13	41	18	42	+ 2.5	14	13,590	w.	68	e.	6 8 8 14 6.7 T	
Narragansett.	9																						
Providence.	160	57	67	29.87	30.05	- .02	42.4	+ 2.0	61	3 50	25	30	35	26	3.33	+ 0.5	11	5,345	w.	30	se.	3 9 11 10 5.6 T	
Hartford.	189	122	132	29.87	30.05	- .03	41.8	+ 2.3	61	2 49	24	30	35	27	3.33	+ 0.9	12	5,639	n.w.	35	s.	2 2 12 16 7.0 0.2	
New Haven.	106	116	185	29.92	30.04	- .03	43.4	+ 2.1	60	3 50	25	15	36	28	6.97	+ 3.4	11	7,114	n.	41	ne.	24 8 10 12 6.0 T	
Mid. Atlantic States.																							
Albany.	97	102	115	29.94	30.05	- .03	39.9	+ 0.6	61	2 46	25	15	32	28	3.6	+ 2.0	10	5,097	s.	36	se.	2 4 11 15 7.1 6.5	
Binghamton.	871	78	90	29.10	30.05	- .04	37.4	- 0.2	57	2 44	18	15	30	27	3.09	+ 0.8	12	4,447	w.	27	s.	21 2 6 22 8.3 11.2	
New York.	314	108	250	29.70	30.04	- .05	45.2	+ 1.2	60	2 50	33	30	40	17	4.1	+ 1.6	11	8,699	w.	52	nw.	14 8 9 13 6.2 T	
Harrisburg.	374	94	104	29.68	30.09	- .02	42.4	+ 0.7	60	10 48	26	15	37	24	3.38	+ 0.3	10	5,489	w.	25	nw.	7 9 11 10 5.7 0.8	
Philadelphia.	117	116	184	29.94	30.07	- .03	46.4	+ 1.5	60	2 52	31	15	40	19	4.28	+ 2.8	11	7,286	n.w.	40	n.	24 7 7 16 6.3 0.7	
Seranton.	865	111	119	29.17	30.05	- .04	39.7	+ 0.6	60	2 46	21	15	33	25	3.56	+ 0.8	9	5,112	sw.	35	s.	2 5 8 17 7.1 10.1	
Atlantic City.	52	37	48	30.01	30.07	- .03	45.7	+ 0.2	58	3 51	32	17	40	19	4.2	+ 2.4	14	6,393	n.	40	ne.	24 10 5 15 6.2 T	
Cape May.	17	48	52	30.07	30.09	- .01	46.4	- 1.0	60	10 51	32	20	41	16	4.3	+ 2.6	16	7,221	n.	36	n.	24 7 11 12 5.9 0.5	
Baltimore.	123	69	117	29.93	30.07	- .04	45.4	- 0.4	63	10 52	29	15	39	22	5.62	+ 2.1	12	5,307	w.	35	w.	7 8 6 16 6.4 T	
Washington.	112	59	76	29.96	30.08	- .04	44.5	- 0.5	65	10 52	24	15	37	29	3.34	+ 0.6	12	11,816	ne.	46	nw.	24 10 6 14 6.0 T	
Cape Henry.	18	11	58	30.05	30.08	- .02	50.6	- 1.5	72	9 56	34	14	45	23	3.34	+ 0.6	10	2,636	n.	24	nw.	26 8 7 15 6.3 T	
Lynchburg.	681	88	98	29.35	30.11	- .02	45.2	- 0.9	68	5 54	24	15	37	35	4.06	+ 1.7	10	7,475	n.	32	nw.	24 10 5 15 6.2 T	
Mount Weather.	1,725	10	57	28.19	30.07	- .05	39.6	- 0.8	58	5 45	26	13	34	18	3.66	+ 1.4	9	5,192	n.	30	w.	26 12 12 5.6 T	
Norfolk.	91	102	111	29.99	30.09	- .02	50.6	- 0.6	76	9 58	31	14	44	27	4.51	+ 2.8	12	6,221	n.	36	w.	26 12 12 5.6 T	
Richmond.	144	145	152	29.95	30.11	- .01	47.8	- 1.0	67	8 56	30	10	40	29	4.64	+ 2.2	9	5,954	n.	26	nw.	6 11 7 12 5.7	
Wytheville.	2,299	40	47	27.68	30.12	- .01	41.6	- 1.4	66	21 49	21	15	34	29	3.27	+ 0.2	11	4,474	w.	28	w.	26 11 5 14 5.8 2.7	
S. Atlantic States.																							
Asheville.	2,285	53	75	27.73	30.14	.00	44.2	- 0.9	71	21 54	23	30	35	36	3.9	+ 2.6	12	6,075	n.w.	40	se.	23 13 5 12 5.2 T	
Charlotte.	773	68	78	29.27	30.12	- .01	48.4	- 2.0	75	9 57	30	30	40	32	4.52	+ 1.8	11	4,907	ne.	28	w.	6 10 7 13 5.6 T	
Hatteras.	11	12	47	30.00	30.08	- .03	54.8	- 1.9	72	10 60	41	13	49	20	5.2	+ 0.8	14	11,575	w.	58	w.	6 11 9 10 5.2 T	
Raleigh.	376	71	79	29.70	30.11	- .02	49.6	- 0.6	76	9 58	30	25	41	28	4.38	+ 2.9	10	4,432	n.	27	nw.	26 13 6 11 5.1 T	
Wilmington.	78	81	91	30.02	30.11	- .01	55.8	- 0.3	76	22 63	32	14	45	29	4.48	+ 2.9	9	5,554	n.	26	nw.	24 10 9 11 5.3 T	
Charleston.	48	14	92	30.05	30.10	- .02	58.0	- 0.1	78	21 66	38	14	50	26	5.28	+ 2.8	10	7,548	n.	35	w.	6 8 14 8 5.4 T	
Columbia, S. C.	851	41	57	29.73	30.12	.00	52.4	- 1.4	75	9 62	30	14	43	31	4.46	+ 1.7	10	4,755	ne.	28	sw.	2 11 8 11 5.5 T	
Augusta.	180	89	97	29.91	30.11	- .02	53.3	- 0.6	76	9 63	29	15	44	33	4.48	+ 0.9	11	4,123	n.w.	34	w.	6 13 6 11 4.9 T	
Savannah.	65	81	89	30.04	30.11	- .01	58.2	- 0.7	79	21 67	35	14	50	28	5.1	+ 0.8	9	5,192	n.	30	w.	6 9 5 16 6.1 T	
Jacksonville.	43	101	129	30.04	30.09	- .01	62.2	+ 0.9	82	22 70	43	14	54	25	5.81	+ 0.2	9	5,954	n.	26	nw.	6 11 7 12 5.7	
Florida Peninsula.																							
Jupiter.	28	10	48	30.02	30.04	- .01	72.8	+ 1.2	85	11 79	54	7	67	67	6.59	+ 2.0	11	7,702	se.	24	se.	18 1 22 7 6.1 T	
Key West.	22	10	55	30.00	30.02	.00	76.2	+ 1.9	84	10 81	67	7	72	12	7.04	+ 0.9	7	6,772	ne.	26	nw.	6 17 8 5 3.9 T	
Sand Key.	25	41	71	29.98	30.01	- .01	75.7	- .2	82	24 78	68	7	73	9	6.50	+ 1.8	8	10,995	ne.	39	n.	13 14 12 3 4.2 T	
Tampa.	35																						

TABLE I.—Climatological data for U. S. Weather Bureau stations, November, 1907—Continued.

Stations.	Elevation of instruments.		Pressure, in inches.		Temperature of the air, in degrees Fahrenheit.								Precipitation, in inches.		Wind.															
	Barometer above sea level, feet.	Thermometers above ground.	Actual, reduced to mean of 24 hours.	Sea level, reduced to mean of 24 hrs.	Departure from normal.	Mean max. + mean min. + 2	Departure from normal.	Maximum.	Date.	Mean maximum.	Minimum.	Date.	Mean minimum.	Greatest daily range.	Mean wet thermometer.	Mean temperature of the dew-point.	Mean relative humidity, per cent.	Total.	Departure from normal.	Days with 01, or more.	Total movement, miles.	Prevailing direction.	Miles per hour.	Maximum velocity.	Clear days.	Partly cloudy days.	Cloudy days.	Average cloudiness during daylight, tenths.	Total snowfall.	
	Anerometer above ground.		Actual, reduced to mean of 24 hours.	Sea level, reduced to mean of 24 hrs.	Departure from normal.																									
<i>Up. Lake Reg.—Cont.</i>																														
Grand Rapids.....	707	121	162	29.27	30.05	.00	37.6	— 0.5	53	1 44	20	16	31	21	34	31	81	2.18	— 0.4	10	7,595	w.	40	sc.	20	3	8	19	7.5 T. 13.6	
Houghton.....	668	66	74	29.25	29.99	— .03	32.6	+ 1.1	55	17 38	17	30	27	30	24	2.47	— 0.3	14	4,995	nw.	26	w.	9	4	9	17	7.5 13.6			
Marquette.....	734	77	116	29.19	30.01	— .01	33.1	— 1.2	52	1 38	16	14	28	23	30	25	75	2.50	— 0.3	13	8,547	w.	39	sw.	12	3	11	16	7.2 16.7	
Port Huron.....	638	70	120	29.32	30.04	— .01	36.8	0.0	56	1 43	17	14	30	20	34	31	81	1.48	— 1.2	9	8,906	sw.	37	se.	20	6	7	17	6.9 0.3	
Sault Sainte Marie.....	614	40	61	29.30	30.01	— .00	31.8	+ 1.1	48	1 37	12	14	27	20	30	27	84	2.19	— 0.7	16	7,458	se.	36	w.	8	2	5	23	8.6 7.6	
Chicago.....	823	140	310	29.17	30.08	— .01	41.0	+ 1.3	56	27	47	25	14	53	17	36	31	71	1.92	— 0.6	4	10,520	sw.	52	sw.	20	12	10	8	4.6 3.0
Milwaukee.....	681	122	139	29.33	30.08	— .03	37.6	+ 1.5	53	18	43	18	14	32	19	33	28	71	0.85	— 1.1	7	7,303	w.	42	e.	20	14	8	8	4.7 1.8
Green Bay.....	617	49	86	29.35	30.03	— .01	34.9	+ 2.4	51	1 42	12	14	28	25	30	26	73	1.29	— 0.7	5	7,303	sw.	29	w.	9	6	12	12	6.4 T.	
Duluth.....	1,183	11	47	28.77	30.02	— .02	30.3	+ 1.0	51	23	37	5	14	24	22	27	23	77	0.53	— 1.0	6	8,986	nw.	41	ne.	27	11	4	15	5.9 1.0
<i>North Dakota.</i>							29.9	+ 5.3																					4.9	
Moorehead.....	940	8	57	29.03	30.08	+ .01	29.8	+ 5.4	53	6 40	0	14	20	32	26	24	86	0.11	— 0.9	2	6,154	nw.	32	nw.	8	9	8	13	5.7 1.3	
Bismarck.....	1,674	78	57	28.27	30.12	+ .05	32.0	+ 6.0	63	6 45	5	14	19	41	26	21	71	0.36	— 0.3	2	7,048	nw.	40	nw.	8	23	5	2	2.8 3.6	
Devils Lake.....	1,482	11	44	28.41	30.03	— .03	27.0	+ 4.4	55	5 38	7	15	16	34	23	20	79	0.16	— 0.8	4	8,036	nw.	42	w.	8	11	8	11	5.1 1.6	
Williston.....	1,875	14	56	28.03	30.07	+ .01	30.8	+ 5.6	64	1 45	1	14	17	46	24	18	66	0.02	— 0.6	1	7,198	s.	42	nw.	9	6	14	10	6.2 T.	
<i>Upper Miss. Valley.</i>							39.0	+ 1.2																						
Minneapolis.....	102	208					34.6		56	1 41	11	14	28	23	30	24	68	0.08	— 0.2	5	8,800	nw.	35	nw.	8	12	6	12	5.0 0.3	
St. Paul.....	837	171	179	29.13	30.06	— .00	34.4	+ 3.5	56	1 41	12	14	28	25	30	24	68	1.08	— 0.2	5	7,758	nw.	35	nw.	27	13	6	11	5.2 0.3	
La Crosse.....	714	71	87	29.28	30.07	— .00	35.4	+ 1.6	52	1 42	13	14	29	25	31	28	78	1.22	— 0.6	4	7,150	nw.	29	nw.	2	10	10	10	5.4 2.3	
Madison.....	974	70	78	28.99	30.07	+ .01	35.7	+ 1.5	51	1 42	15	14	29	22	31	28	78	1.22	— 0.6	4	5,448	nw.	34	w.	9	9	12	9	5.1 1.5	
Charles City.....	1,015	8	58	28.09	30.11	+ .03	34.0	+ 1.0	54	4 43	8	14	25	29	27	24	82	0.82	— 0.6	4	5,448	nw.	34	w.	5	17	7	6	3.5 0.3	
Davenport.....	606	71	79	29.43	30.10	+ .02	38.8	+ 1.3	57	18	47	19	14	30	26	23	28	71	1.08	— 0.7	3	4,886	nw.	31	nw.	5	9	14	7	5.0 3.0
Des Moines.....	861	84	101	29.19	30.12	+ .04	38.6	+ 1.8	59	7 48	17	16	29	30	33	28	72	1.12	— 0.4	4	5,220	nw.	31	nw.	5	9	14	7	5.0 3.0	
Dubuque.....	698	100	117	29.34	30.11	+ .04	37.1	+ 1.1	55	1 45	18	14	23	27	32	28	74	1.29	— 0.5	6	4,657	nw.	24	nw.	5	13	5	13	3.2 2.1	
Keokuk.....	614	64	77	29.44	30.14	+ .05	41.1	+ 1.7	61	4 50	21	15	32	28	34	28	69	1.17	— 0.7	3	4,657	nw.	32	nw.	5	20	7	3	3.1 T.	
Cairo.....	536	87	93	29.76	30.15	+ .03	46.9	0.0	70	5 55	26	18	39	30	40	34	67	4.43	+ 0.4	7	6,107	s.	39	sw.	20	14	6	10	4.4 T.	
La Salle.....	536	66	64	29.53	30.12	+ .04	38.4	+ 0.6	56	27	47	18	15	30	27	30	32	75	1.55	— 1.1	5	1,62	w.	36	sw.	20	18	3	9	4.1 1.6
Peoria.....	609	11	45	29.44	30.12	+ .03	38.3	+ 0.8	60	5 49	14	16	28	32	32	28	69	1.87	— 0.8	4	6,147	nw.	34	sw.	20	17	8	5	3.4 T.	
Springfield, Ill.....	644	10	92	29.41	30.12	+ .02	41.5	+ 0.8	61	25	50	22	11	32	26	35	29	69	1.87	— 0.7	2	5,772	nw.	36	sw.	20	16	10	4	4.1 T.
Hannibal.....	534	75	109	29.53	30.12	+ .03	41.0	+ 0.5	63	4 52	20	15	39	30	32	28	69	1.22	— 0.7	2	5,772	nw.	36	sw.	20	16	5	7	3.4 0.1	
St. Louis.....	567	208	217	29.50	30.12	+ .02	44.4	+ 1.0	66	25	52	23	11	37	25	33	32	65	1.89	— 1.0	5	7,487	nw.	38	nw.	5	18	5	7	3.4 0.1
<i>Missouri Valley.</i>							40.0	+ 2.6																						
Columbia, Mo.....	784	11	84	29.30	30.15	+ .06	41.7	— 0.7	66	7 53	19	11	30	33	30	24	68	1.19	— 1.1	2	5,394	nw.	39	nw.	30	14	7	9	4.2 T.	
Kansas City.....	963	116	181	29.13	30.19	+ .10	44.4	+ 2.9	67	5 53	20	14	36	28	37	30	62	1.32	— 0.5	3	8,242	nw.	43	nw.	30	17	7	6	3.3 T.	
Springfield, Mo.....	1,324	98	104																											

TABLE I.—Climatological data for U. S. Weather Bureau stations, November, 1907—Continued.

* More than one date. † Record incomplete.

TABLE II.—*Climatological record of cooperative observers, November, 1907.*

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.	
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.
Alabama.	°	°	°	Inz.	Inz.	Arizona—Cont'd.	°	°	°	Inz.	Inz.	Alicia.	°	°	°	Inz.	Inz.
Alaga.	81	20	50.2	5.37		Bonita.	74	29	50.6	2.04	2.0	Amity.	76	19	47.6	6.30	T.
Ashville.	81	20	50.2	5.37		Bowie.	74	29	50.6	1.50		Arkadelphia.	79	13	50.0	8.73	
Auburn.	74	31	53.2	8.21		Buckeye.	85	30	58.7	0.11		Arkansas City.				7.35	
Bermuda.	76	26	55.0	8.81		Casa Grande.	90	29	59.9	0.00		Batesville.	80	20	48.4	6.38	
Boilier.	79	20	51.7	3.70	T.	Cave Creek.	87	38	60.4	0.16		Bee Branch.	77°	20°	49.6°	6.30	
Bridgeport.						Chiarsons Mill.	50	9	29.4	3.47	16.0	Benton.	84	20	50.5	9.32	
Camphill.	79	25	52.6	8.31		Clifton.				1.14	T.	Bergman.				2.54	
Cedar Bluff.				6.46		Cline.	75	30	52.9	0.89		Brinkley.	78	19	49.2	6.06	
Citronelle.	80°	28°	57.2°			Cochise *1.	70	32	50.4	1.93		Camden.	79	18	50.8	8.61	
Clanton.	78	21	51.4	8.06		Columbia.	85	38	64.4	3.18		Center Point.	80	16	50.9	8.60	
Cordova.	79	19	50.0	5.48		Congress.	76	34	57.4	1.42	2.0	Clarendon.				6.18	
Cullinan.	75	21	49.2	4.01		Douglas.	81	26	50.6	2.41		Conway.	76	19	46.2	7.40	
Decatur.	74	21	46.6	3.60		Dudleyville.	81	30	55.0	0.90		Corning.	76	20	47.9	5.83	
Daphne.	80	35	59.6	8.03		Fish Creek.				0.16		Des Arc.	77°	22°	51.1°	7.65	
Demopolis.				4.72		Fort Apache.	73	17	45.4	0.10	T.	Dodd City.	76	15	45.6	3.00	
Eufaula.	72	27	51.4	7.64		Fort Huachuca.	72	15	49.7	1.72	T.	Dutton.	76	13	45.6	3.68	
Evergreen.	80	27	55.2	7.18		Fort Mojave.	86	36	61.4	0.07		Earl.	77°	20°	41.2	4.20	
Floamat.				2.50		Fredonia.	76	31	50.6	0.02		El Dorado.	81	22	51.4	6.47	
Florence.	76	21	48.5	4.63		Gila Bend.	88	35	64.4	0.00		England.	79	19	51.3	6.60	
Fort Deposit.	77	29	53.0	7.43		Globe.	75	30	52.0	0.82		Eureka Springs.	75	15	46.1	2.73	
Gadsden.	76	24	50.4	5.28		Grand Canyon.	60	18	38.4	1.58	12.8	Fayetteville.	75	14	47.0	2.78	
Good Water.	82	30	56.0	5.98		Greer.				0.32	2.4	Forrest City.	78	20	49.6	5.83	
Greensboro.	77	29	52.6	5.13		Holbrook.	70	21	42.8	1.40	5.0	Fulton.				5.00	
Guntersville.				4.70		Huachuca Reservoir.				4.78		Hardy.	74	21	48.1	4.78	
Hamilton.	77	19	49.4	5.28		Intake.				0.93		Heber.	80	18	47.2	7.76	
Highland Home.	79	28	55.1	9.10		Jerome.	68	31	49.8	0.60	6.0	Helena.	78	24	50.6	5.37	
Letohatchee.				4.24		Kearns Canyon.	65	16	39.4	0.63	6.0	Hope.	79	16	52.0	8.04	
Livingston.	78	21	50.7	4.07		Kingman.	79	22	52.6	0.05		Hot Springs.	75	14	47.6	8.80	
Lock No. 4.	76	23	50.3	7.46		Mariocopa.	90	35	60.9	0.10		Huttig.	81°	27°	52.7°	4.84	
Lucy.	77°	22°	56.4°	5.70		Mesa.	88	34	59.8	0.04		Jonesboro.				4.77	
Madison Station.	75	21	45.0	4.99		Mohawk Summit.	88	45	70.2	0.00		La Crosse.	75	17	48.4	4.41	
Maple Grove.	76	20	47.4	5.59		Natural Bridge.				1.09		Lakefarm.	81	17	50.5	5.91	
Newbern.	81	24	53.0	5.47		Paradise.	80	26	45.6	1.74	3.0	Lewisville.	80°	16	50.4°	6.58	
Opelika.	75	28	54.1	7.92		Parker.	92	30	61.6	0.19		Lutherville.	77	15	47.7	4.44	
Ozark.	74	29	58.2	5.22		Phoenix (Ex. Farm).	85	32	58.8	0.46		Malvern.	76	19	48.6	8.95	
Pushumataha.	80	21	51.6	5.44		Picacho*3.	85	41	63.5	0.39		Mammoth Spring.	75	16	45.0	4.68	
Riverton.	77	17	46.3	5.00		Pinal Ranch.				1.55	0.5	Marked Tree.				5.85	
Scottsboro.	73	20	48.6	4.88	T.	Pinto.				1.17	4.0	Marwell.	80	20	50.4	6.20	
Selma.	80	25	51.8	7.96		Prescott.	72	29	49.8	0.63	1.5	Mena.	75	16	49.5	4.48	
Spring Hill.	79	31	57.4	8.22		Roosevelt.	82	33	56.8	1.44		Montrose.	79	20	51.8	4.45	
Talladega.	78	20	51.6	6.78		St. Johns.	68	14	41.4	0.37	2.3	Mossdale.	71	15	47.1	4.43	
Thomasville.	73	26	52.0	4.62		St. Michaels.	62	13	35.3	0.36	6.0	Mount Nebo.				4.09	
Tuscaloosa.	78	22	49.5	4.23		San Carlos.	82	29	58.8	0.63		Newport.	78°	22°	50.2°	5.60	
Tuscumbia.	75	21	48.0	4.53		San Simon.	69	27	46.1	0.93		Pine Bluff.	78	19	49.0	7.50	
Uukogee.	80	29	54.1	8.67		Seligman.	70	20	44.9	0.59	5.5	Pocahontas.	76	20	48.6	6.19	
Union Springs.	76	28	53.1	7.97		Sentinel.	81	35	52.3	0.00		Pond.	77	10	45.2	1.97	
Untontown.	79	25	53.4	4.98		Silverbell.	84	37	59.0	1.25		Prescott.	80	18	50.2	7.55	
Valley Head.	74	16	46.0	5.74		Tempe.	89	33	60.0	0.04		Princeton.	81	14	49.9	8.45	
Wetumpka.	82	25	54.0	7.95		Thatcher.	75	27	51.2	0.51		Rogers.	76	13	46.7	2.74	
Arizona.				1.67		Tombstone.	70	31	49.8	2.68		Russellville.				4.73	
Allaire Ranch.						Tucson.	85	30	58.1	0.78		Spielerville.	81	19	49.6	4.02	
Arizona Canal Co. Dam.	86	36	61.0	0.08		Upper San Pedro.	79	24	49.8	1.50		Stuttgart.	82	18	49.3	6.03	
Asctec.	90	32	63.0	0.00		Vail*5.	82	41	64.3	0.09		Texarkana.	80°	22°	53.6°	4.90	
Jenson.	80	29	51.3	1.30		Walnut Grove.				0.30	2.0	Warren.	79	18	50.2	5.86	
Ibiee.	69°	22°	45.6°	2.93	T.	Williams.	82	10	41.0	0.92	9.6	Wiggs.	77	11	48.2	9.12	

TABLE II.—*Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued.*

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.	
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.
<i>California.</i>						<i>California—Cont'd.</i>						<i>Colorado—Cont'd.</i>					
Alturas	68	14	38.6	1.11	8.0	Redding	78	33	54.2	0.33		Moraine	57	0	31.9	0.29	3.7
Auburn	78	42	58.8	0.00		Redlands	83	36	59.4	0.24		Nederland	57	0	35	6.8	
Azusa	85	34	59.6	0.01		Reedley	78	31	53.9	0.00		Pagoda	65	5	32.8	T.	
Bagdad	82	42	62.8	0.00		Repress	87	40	65.5	0.26		Pagosa Springs	65	1	33.0	0.54	8.5
Bakersfield	90	28	58.2	0.00		Rialto	84	33	58.2	0.02		Paonia	69	14	39.2	0.08	1.0
Bear Valley				0.50	0.8	Riverside	79	31	54.9	0.10		Platte Canyon					
Berkeley	70	42	55.0	0.08		Rocklin	72	34	51.8	2.27		Power House	62	7	34.9	0.26	8.5
Bishop	76	18	47.3	0.00		Rohnerville	70	34	53.0	0.05		Rangely	67	1	31.0	T.	T.
Blacksburg	76	28	47.5	2.54		Sacramento	78	33	55.5	0.00		River Portal	56	12	33.0	0.14	T.
Blue Canyon	70	22	42.8	0.42		Salinas	78	33	55.5	0.00		Rocky Ford	71	9	40.2	2.00	T.
Branscomb	75	29	48.2	2.49		San Bernardino	87	31	58.8	0.10		Saguache	62	6	33.4	0.30	4.0
Brush Creek	72	28	47.0	0.53		San Jacinto	85	30	57.2	0.11		Salida	64	2	34.0	0.75	7.0
Butte Valley				0.91		San Miguel Island						San Luis	67	-10	32.1	0.65	6.0
Calexico	86	40	63.0	0.00		Santa Barbara	85	38	58.6	T.		Sapinero	57	1	29.0	0.40	4.4
Campbell	75	29	52.5	0.06		Santa Clara College	77	30	54.6	0.13		Sheridan Lake	72	-1	32.6	0.28	1.2
Campo				0.25		Santa Cruz	81	33	55.0	0.00		Silverton	60	-8	28.2	0.56	6.5
Cedarville	62	16	37.6	0.71	=5.0	Santa Maria	90	36	56.9	0.00		Stonewall					
Chico	74	29	54.0	0.14		Santa Monica	87	40	59.4	T.		Terminal Dam					
Claremont	88	37	60.6	0.06		Santa Rosa	80	28	53.5	0.13		Victor	54	5	32.0	0.33	5.0
Cloverdale	83	34	55.4	0.34		Shasta	88	31	59.8	0.06		Villas					
Colfax	80	38	60.4	0.13		Sierra Madre	80	44	61.3	0.01		Wagon Wheel Gap	66	-14	27.0	0.50	7.0
Colusa	78	26	50.9	0.00		Tinson	65	23	41.4	T.		Waterdale	65	-3	35.6	0.46	6.0
Crescent City	70	31	51.0	4.47		Stirling City	69	26	46.8	0.25		Westcliffe	69	-6	31.0	0.24	2.5
Crocker				T.		Stockton	71	31	53.7	T.		Whitepine	50	-9	24.0	0.19	2.0
Cuyamaca	58	25	41.9	1.31		Storey	79	26	52.8	T.		Wray	71	-3	37.6	0.14	1.2
Delta	82	29	51.3	0.57		Summerdale	69	26	47.6	0.21	1.0	Yuma					2.6
Dobbins	88	36	59.2	0.22		Summit	63	19	38.2	0.40	4.0	<i>Connecticut.</i>					
Durham	81	30	54.0	0.17		Susanville	59	23	40.2	0.47		Bridgeport	61	21	43.2	6.05	T.
El Cajon	88	33	59.5	0.62		Tamarack	51	4	31.9	0.48		Canton	59	16	38.2	5.93	T.
Electra	79	37	57.8	0.06		Towle	78	24	51.4	0.00		Colchester	67	16	40.8	7.31	T.
Elmwood	75	29	55.7	0.10		Tulare	76	28	53.7	0.00		Falls Village					
Elainore	84	26	55.5	0.08		Tustin (near)						Hawleyville	59	18	40.1	6.19	4.0
Escondido	85	27	56.6	0.14		Ukiah	79	26	50.8	0.36		New London	63	26	43.4	7.23	T.
Folsom	82	34	56.0	0.24		Upper Lake	81	30	51.9	0.16		North Grosvenor Dale	61	17	39.2	5.63	T.
Fordyce				0.35	6.0	Cascade						Norwalk	60	17	40.1	5.98	T.
Fort Ross	75	38	54.4	0.95		Castille Rock	55	3	28.5	0.23		Southington	62	17	40.6	6.15	0.5
Georgetown	74	31	52.7	0.27		Cheeseman	69	5	36.6	0.12		South Manchester					
Gold Run	78	32	55.2	0.20		Cheyenne Wells	76	-3	40.8	0.25	T.	Storrs	62	19	40.2	6.91	T.
Greenville	68	19	41.8	0.60		Chromo.	66	3	32.8	0.50		Voluntown	62	16	41.4	5.83	T.
Hanford	80	30	54.6	0.00		Collbran	65	7	32.8	0.20	2.2	Wallingford	59	21	41.5	6.18	T.
Healdsburg	83	30	56.7	0.11		Colorado Springs	65	6	36.4	0.29	2.2	Waterbury	60	18	41.0	5.69	0.5
Heber	92	36	65.8	0.02		Cope	72	-1	38.0	0.42	5.5	West Cornwall	55	20	38.3	4.69	5.2
Hollister	80	29	54.6	0.03		Cripple Creek						West Simsbury					5.88
Idyllwild	69	19	46.2	1.11	4.0	Delta	67	10	33.6	0.39		<i>Delaware.</i>					
Indio	92	37	64.8	0.05		Eads	78	0	38.2	0.33	T.	Delaware City					3.30
Iowa Hill	79	33	55.0	0.23		Eagle	65	0	31.2	0.04	0.5	Dover	64	26	45.8	6.60	T.
Isabella				T.	Eureka						Milford	66	24	46.5	7.21	T.	
Jamestown	73	29	53.2	0.00		Fort Collins	70	-1	32.9	0.44	5.5	Millsboro	70	23	44.6	6.64	T.
Joino				0.00		Fort Morgan	76	-1	33.4	0.50	4.0	Newark	60	24	43.6	5.33	T.
Kennedy Gold Mine				0.23		Garnett	62	1	27.64	0.35	3.5	Seaford	64	28	45.4	5.62	0.5
Kentfield				0.00		Gladstone						<i>District of Columbia.</i>					
Kernville				0.00		Gleneyre	68	1	34.8	0.28	3.0	West Washington	70	22	44.2	4.90	T.
King City	75	32	56.4	0.00		Grand Lake						<i>Florida.</i>					
La Porte	71	21	44.4	0.64	1.0	Grand Valley	67	9	36.8	0.10	T.	Apalachicola	75	38	60.2	3.48	
Laytonville				1.11		Greeley	72	2	33.44	0.64	10.0	Aracida	88	43	69.7	2.14	
Le Grande	72	30	51.8	0.00		Gunnison	60	-2	27.8	T.		Arch	85	36	62.8	2.59	
Lemoncoove	81	33	57.2	T.		Hahne Peak	62	-3	25.4	0.29	5.0	Avon Park	88	46	69.3	0.97	
Lick Observatory	65	32	49.6	0.18		Hamps.	71	6	36.0	0.20	3.5	Bartow	91	36	68.6	1.79	
Livermore	82	33	56.1	0.04		Hoehne	77	5	36.7	0.48	6.5	Bonifay	80	30	57.8	6.20	
Lodi	73	30	52.3	0.09		Holly	79	5	39.4	0.90		Brooksville	89	41	66.6	2.66	
Lone Pine	70	22	47.1	T.		Idaho Springs	61	2	35.8	0.25	3.5	Carrabelle					
Los Gatos	74	33	52.4	0.03		Kremlin						Cedarkey	81	46	64.2	1.94	
Magalia	88	27	51.4	0.76		Lake City	58	-1	29.2	0.30	4.0	Clermont	88	40	68.3	0.53	
Mammoth	92	38	66.0	0.00		Lake Moraine	51	-6	27.6	0.60							

TABLE II.—Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued.

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.	
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.
Florida—Cont'd.	o	o	o	In.	In.	Idaho—Cont'd.	o	o	o	In.	In.	Illinois—Cont'd.	o	o	o	In.	In.
Switzerland	86	41	62.6 ^b	2.33		Murtaugh	62	12	36.84	0.58	3.0	Yorkville	56 ^b	13	36.0 ^b	1.25	1.0
Tallahassee	81	36	58.8	1.80		Nevens Ranch	1.82	T.	Zion	63	11	35.3	1.99	4.0
Tarpon Springs	86	39	65.4	1.16		Oakley	66	19	39.6	0.62	T.	Anderson	61	18	39.3	2.18	2.0
Wauuna	81	30	56.1		Orofino	66	21	39.7	2.61		Auburn	54	14	33.7	4.20	T.
Georgia.						Paris	67	10	34.0	0.23	2.3	Bloomington	56	15	37.8	2.44	1.0
Adairsville	72	24	48.7	5.16	T.	Payette	65	18	40.1	0.39	T.	Bluffton	62	20	40.3	3.32	1.5
Albany	75	28	55.2	4.66		Pollock	0.77		Butlerville	60	15	37.3	2.89
Allapaha	80	30	56.2	3.77		Poplar	54	21	37.8	2.13	5.0	Cambridge City	61	18	39.8	2.80	T.
Americus	72	28	52.3	7.11		Porthill	52	—	22.1		Columbus	66	16	38.5	3.45	0.5
Athens	73	29	49.2	6.06		Rupert	65	12	36.2	0.65	2.5	Connersville	60	15	37.0	2.31	T.
Bainbridge	83	28	58.8	4.16		St. Maries	64	22	40.4	2.07	T.	Delphi	54	22	38.2	1.92	4.5
Blakely	79	28	55.3	5.06		Salem	0.19	1.9	Ekhart	61	18	41.0	3.02	1.0
Brunswick	83	36	61.5	1.31		Salmon	56	13	33.2	0.77	3.4	Eminence	68	18	42.0	
Camak	76	26	52.4	8.02		Standord	0.56	7.3	Farmersburg	56	18	38.6	1.97	0.5
Clayton	75	23	48.2	8.77		Sugar City	56	13	33.0	0.07	1.4	Farmland	57	16	38.6	2.39	2.5
Columbus	76 ^a	30	53.2	8.05		Twin Falls	69	15	39.2	0.72	4.0	Franklin	62	18	39.8	2.18	1.3
Covington	77 ^a	29	51.0 ^b	6.77		Vernon	57	15	34.1	0.20	2.0	Greenefield	61	19	40.4	3.86	1.0
Cuthbert	77	25	54.6	6.82		West Lake	0.85	7.6	Greensburg	58	21	41.0	2.92	3.0
Dahlonega	70	24	47.1	7.87		Weston	62	12	40.6	0.15	1.5	Hammond	65	20	38.1	1.91	8.0
Diamond	68	24	46.8	5.82	T.	Illinois.	0.78		Huntington	56	18	38.6	2.37	1.0
Dublin	4.15		Albion	63	18	42.0	4.02		Jeffersonville	70	23	42.8	3.05	T.
Dudley	78	28	55.2	4.75		Aledo	56	13	38.8	1.40	0.2	Judyville	62	13	37.2	2.17	1.2
Eastman	80	29	55.8	3.10		Alexander	63	17	40.4	1.25	T.	Knox	54	14	37.0	2.37	2.5
Eatonton	77	25	51.6	5.19		Antioch	56	14	36.2	1.87	T.	Kokomo	58	15	39.1	1.74	1.0
Elberton	74	25	49.3	7.62		Astoria	60	12	38.4	1.78	T.	Lafayette	59	18	38.2	1.32	T.
Experiment	75	28	51.6	5.18		Aurora	56	13	36.6	1.62	1.0	Laporie	53	21	38.0	3.00	4.8
Fitzgerald	78	28	56.3	1.95		Benton	2.41	0.5	Lima	58	16	36.6	1.58	T.
Fleming	84	28	56.4	1.83		Bloomington	61	18	39.7	2.17	T.	Logansport	59	17	39.0	2.42	T.
Fort Gaines	75	24	58.0	5.59		Bushnell	61	16	40.1	1.17	T.	Madison	65	21	41.7	3.06	T.
Gainesville	69	27	47.5	5.65		Cambridge	57	17	38.3	1.23	0.5	Marengo	69	19	42.7	3.88	T.
Gillsville	74	26	49.8	6.68		Carlinville	66	16	41.7	1.78	T.	Marion	56	17	38.2	2.00	2.5
Glenville	80	32	56.3	1.78		Carlyle	2.41	0.5	Markle	56	14	37.2	2.40	T.
Greenbush	71	21	47.2	6.66	T.	Carrollton	69	18	42.4	3.25		Mauzy	59 ^a	16 ^a	39.0 ^a	3.30	1.8
Greenbrier	77	24	50.7	6.81		Charleston	60	16	39.4	2.60	0.1	Moore's Hill	63	20	40.8	2.71	0.8
Griffin	77	31	51.5	6.10		Chester	70	23	47.6	3.80	T.	Mount Vernon	67	20	44.8	4.83	T.
Harrison	75	25	52.5	5.26		Clane	63 ^a	19 ^a	43.7 ^a	3.61		Northfield	59	11	37.9	2.00	0.5
Hawkinsville	75	25	52.1	3.35		Coatsburg	61	15	39.8	1.49		Paoli	67	18	40.6	4.17	T.
Helets	76	29	56.2	2.32		Decatur	62	18	39.9	2.07	T.	Plymouth	54	16	37.3	2.19
Lost Mountain	75	25	49.1	6.73		Dixon	55	4	39.1	1.23	2.2	Richmond	59	16	37.8	2.74	0.5
Louisville	73	29	52.8	5.49		Dwight	58	15	37.7	2.02	2.7	Rochester	55	19	38.1	2.57	2.2
Lumpkin	78	26	55.0	6.98		Equality	69	23	45.4	4.96	T.	Rockville	59	20	39.8	2.96	1.0
Marshallville	78	25	52.8	6.16		Flora	66	16	41.2	2.92	T.	Rome	75	21	44.5	3.66	T.
Mauzy	83	30	58.9	2.73		Friendgrove	66	19	42.2	4.47	T.	Salamonia	57	14	38.4	1.64	T.
Milledgeville	77	25	51.4	4.64		Galva	59	17	37.9	1.43	0.5	Salem	65	18	40.0	3.91	0.5
Millen	77	26	52.8	3.15		Grafton	1.64	T.	Scottsburg	64 ^b	22 ^b	42.8 ^b	1.0
Montezuma	5.50		Greenville	70	20	42.8	1.82	T.	Shelbyville	62	18	39.4	2.67	T.
Monticello	80	28	52.4	6.42		Griggsville	62	19	41.6	1.80	T.	South Bend	56	26	37.9	2.36	6.5
Morgan	74	34	55.8	5.28		Havana	63	23	41.2	1.59	T.	Terre Haute	62	23	42.5	3.12	1.0
Newnan	79	26	51.7	7.74		Henry	60	12	38.2	1.92	2.0	Veedersburg	65 ^a	16 ^a	40.1 ^a	1.93	1.0
Point Peter	77	23	49.0	7.13		Hillsboro	65	20	42.2	1.77	T.	Vevay	63	18	41.6	2.90	T.
Poulan	82	27	56.4	2.65		Hoopston	59	16	38.1	2.27	2.6	Vincennes	66	19	41.2	4.13	T.
Putnam	80	26	56.4	6.86		Joliet	56	17	37.8	1.86	1.5	Washington	64	20	41.0	3.70	T.
Quitman	90	35	58.2	2.85		Kishwaukee	57	12	36.6	1.31	3.5	Worthington	64	18	41.3	3.27	T.
Ramsey	72	29	49.8	5.27		Knoxville	57	12	37.7	1.32	T.	Zelma	62	19	40.8	3.86	T.
Rome	74	22	47.7	6.33	T.	La Grange	55	16	37.7	1.15	T.	Indian Territory.
St. Marys	85	26	60.6	1.07		La Harpe	60	14	38.8	0.90	T.	Ada	77	28	52.0	2.32	
Screven	83 ^a	30 ^a	58.0 ^a	1.76		Lanark	56	18	35.2	1.41	1.6	Bartlesville	80	17	48.6	2.04	T.
Statesboro	79	30	55.3	1.95		Lincoln	62	19	40.8	2.01	T.	Chickasha	78	16	48.7	2.03	T.
Talbotton	77	25	50.2	8.08		Loami	2.26	T.	Durant	78	16	50.2	3.93	T.
Tallapoosa	76	24	50.6	7.38		McLeansboro	66	22	42.7	3.83		Fairland	80	1			

TABLE II.—Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued.

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.	
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.
Iowa—Cont'd.	°	°	°	Ins.	Ins.	Kansas—Cont'd.	°	°	°	Ins.	1.0	Kentucky—Cont'd.	°	°	°	Ins.	Ins.
Clear Lake.....	56	9	35.3	0.78	1.0	Cimarron.....	75	4	40.5	0.45	T.	Franklin.....	75	22	46.3	3.13	T.
Clinton.....	57	13	36.7	1.31	2.0	Clay Center.....	72	13	44.2	0.75	T.	Bachmans Valley.....	59	23	42.6	7.31	1.0
Columbus Junction.....	58	17	38.9	0.83	T.	Colby.....	73	3	39.6	0.29	T.	Cambridge.....	65	26	46.5	6.65	T.
Corning.....	59	11	37.0	1.45	0.2	Coldwater.....	75	10	45.0	0.22	T.	Chestertown.....	63	29	45.1	7.81	T.
Corydon.....	62	13	39.8	0.91	Columbus.....	73	17	44.5	2.08	1.0	Chewsville.....	62	19	40.8	3.79	1.5
Creston.....	61	15	37.4	1.60	0.5	Coolidge.....	78	0	40.1	0.28	T.	Darlington.....	61	26	44.9	6.44	T.
Cumberland.....	62	12	37.2	1.42	T.	Cottonwood Falls.....	76	16	42.8	1.02	T.	Denton.....	64	27	46.4	8.28	T.
Decorah.....	58	12	35.8	1.40	1.0	Cunningham.....	80	13	47.1	0.45	T.	Easton.....	64	27	44.9	6.44	T.
Delaware.....	53	12	34.6	1.02	3.0	Dresden.....	70	3	40.4	0.30	T.	Emmitsburg.....	60	25	42.8	5.31	0.5
Denison.....	62	11	37.6	1.65	T.	Eldorado.....	71	16	43.8	1.15	T.	Fallston.....	60	24	43.1	6.98	1.0
De Soto.....	62	12	38.5	1.10	T.	Ellinwood.....	75	11	42.6	0.18	T.	Frederick.....	63	22	45.0	4.51	1.0
Dows.....	58	6	34.6	0.85	0.8	Ellsworth.....	75	10	42.4	0.18	T.	Frostburg.....	63	22	47.3	4.73	0.5
Earlham.....	61	10	37.2	1.17	Emporia.....	72	18	44.0	0.85	T.	Grantville.....	61	16	46.7	4.60	10.0
Elliot.....	62	12	36.4	1.33	T.	Enterprise.....	73	15	42.6	0.69	T.	Great Falls.....	65	20	42.9	4.25
Elma.....	52	4	32.3	0.76	1.6	Eskridge.....	69	16	42.0	0.84	T.						
Estherville.....	59	4	34.2	0.91	0.5	Eureka.....	71	1	40.1	1.50	T.						
Fayette.....	53	6	34.0	1.67	2.4	Fall River.....	75	17	44.8	1.40	T.						
Forest City.....	59	7	34.5	1.05	0.5	Farnsworth.....	76	-1	40.6	0.22	0.5						
Fort Dodge.....	58	12	35.2	1.30	1.5	Fort Scott.....	77	17	44.0	1.79	T.						
Fort Madison.....	59	—	35.2	0.94	T.	Frankfort.....	78	12	41.3	1.45	T.						
Gilman.....	52	11	34.7	1.38	3.5	Fredonia.....	78	18	45.3°	1.40	T.						
Grand Meadow.....	52	11	34.7	1.38	3.5	Garden City.....	78	4	39.8	0.16	0.1						
Greenfield.....	62	14	38.4	0.88	T.	Garnett.....	74	15	44.8	1.61	T.						
Grinnell.....	57	12	37.0	0.90	0.5	Goodland.....	72	4	39.9	0.50	2.0						
Grundy Center.....	57	11	37.1	0.77	1.0	Gove*.....	74	8	40.8	0.34	T.						
Guthrie Center.....	58	12	37.2	0.99	T.	Greensburg.....	75	9	43.2	1.00	T.						
Hampton.....	60	10	36.1	0.92	1.5	Grenola.....	75	14	44.7	1.60	T.						
Hancock.....	63	15	38.4	1.50	T.	Hanover.....	73	13	41.8	1.58	T.						
Harian.....	65	11	36.6	0.53	T.	Harrison.....	66	9	39.4	0.17	T.						
Humbolt.....	60	9	35.3	0.96	1.0	Hays.....	73	2	40.0	0.11	T.						
Independence.....	64	11	36.8	0.56	0.5	Horton.....	67	16	42.0	1.55	T.						
Indianola.....	59	16	37.8	1.34	0.4	Howard.....	70	2	39.4	0.40	T.						
Inwood.....	60	5	35.5	0.09	0.3	Hoxie.....	70	15	43.8	0.56	T.						
Iowa City.....	58	12	36.8	1.07	0.5	Hutchinson.....	74	15	46.2	2.04	T.						
Iowa Falls.....	56	10	34.8	0.84	1.0	Independence.....	75	19	46.2	2.04	T.						
Koosauqua.....	60	12	37.6	0.97	T.	Jetmore.....	79	6	42.4	0.15	0.5						
Lacona.....	57	9	34.6	0.42	T.	Jewell.....	68	10	41.6	0.13	T.						
Larrabee.....	57	9	36.7	0.52	La Crosse.....	76	6	43.2°	0.32	T.						
Le Mars.....	58	9	36.7	0.52	Lakin.....	73	3	39.8	0.15	T.						
Lenox.....	61	12	38.0	1.32	0.2	Larned.....	77	7	41.4	0.18	T.						
Leon.....	60	16	38.4	1.37	4.2	Lebanon.....	68	14	41.8	0.18	T.						
Little Sioux.....	63	10	38.2	1.09	T.	Lebo.....	73	18	42.8	1.29	T.						
Logan.....	63	13	37.8	2.27	1.5	Liberal.....	82	6	44.8	0.29	T.						
Maple Valley.....	58	12	35.7	0.41	1.0	Macksville.....	74	9	43.0	1.00	T.						
Marshalltown.....	58	12	35.7	1.06	T.	McPherson.....	71	15	42.9	0.62	T.						
Mason City.....	54	8	34.2	0.68	0.8	Madison.....	76	15	46.6	1.43	T.						
Masena.....	66	11	38.0	0.94	T.	Manhattan.....	77	16	42.2	1.14	T.						
Mount Ayr.....	66	16	39.6	1.56	2.0	Manhattan Agr. College.....	75	15	41.4	1.12	T.						
Mount Pleasant.....	60	16	38.6	1.23	T.	Marion.....	67	17	41.3	0.96	T.						
Murray.....	62	14	38.8	1.31	2.2	Minneapolis.....	71	13	40.6	0.36	T.						
New Hampton.....	51	9	33.9	0.75	1.0	Moran.....	78	17	45.1	1.71	T.						
Newton.....	57	13	37.3	1.04	1.0	Mount Hope.....	70	—	40.0	0.63	T.						
Northwood.....	54	8	34.4	0.93	2.7	Newton.....	70	—	37.4	0.20	T.						
Odebold.....	66	9	37.1	0.97	0.2	Norton.....	76	—	37.4	0.20	T.						
Olin.....	58	12	36.4	1.26	3.0	Norwich.....	77	16	45.5	0.81	T.						
Onawa.....	62	14	39.2	0.59	0.5	Oberlin.....	71	16	42.6	1.45	T.						
Osage.....	57	8	35.2	0.88	2.0	Olathe.....	71	16	41.7	0.96	T.						
Oskaloosa.....	58	13	37.8	0.94	0.2	Osage City.....	78	19	45.9	2.23	T.						
Ottumwa.....	67	17	40.1	1.30	T.	Oswego.....	77	19	45.9	2.23	T.						
Pacific Junction.....	64	14	38.0	1.53	T.	Ottawa.....	75	16	42.2	1.54	T.						
Pella.....	58	16	38.9	0.92	Paola.....	74	16	42.0	1.48	T.						
Perry.....	60	12	36.6	1.23	2.5	Phillipsburg.....	69	5	37.8	0.18	T.						
Plover.....	58	2	33.0	1.30	2.0	Plainville.....	72	6	42.8	0.15	T.						
Pocahontas.....	58	8	33.6	1.58	1.8	Pleasanton.....	72	18	43.3	1.47	T.						
Ridgeway.....	59	8	36.6	1.39	2.2	Pratt.....	76	11	44.2	0.46	T.						
Rock Rapid.....	60	8	34.4	0.10	1.0	Republi.....	65	9	37.8°	0.10	T.						
Rockwell.....	60	9	35.7	1.35	1.0	Rome.....	75	18	44.8	1.11	T.						
St. Charles.....	64	15	40.2	1.03	1.3	Russell.....	74	10	41.								

TABLE II.—Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued.

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.	
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.
<i>Maryland</i> —Cont'd.						<i>Michigan</i> —Cont'd.						<i>Minnesota</i> —Cont'd.					
Greenspring Furnace	60	18	41.3	4.14	Ins.	Jackson	55	18	37.2	2.26	1.5	Tonka Bay	0	0	0	Ins.	Ins.
Harney	65	27	45.4	4.46	T.	Jeddo	56	17	36.4	1.60	0.7	Two Harbors	51	7	32.2	0.50
Jewell	64	21	42.8	4.26	T.	Kalamazoo	53	20	37.0	1.86	0.5	Wabasha	58	9	36.1	1.24	2.0
Keedysville						Lake City	50	6	31.8	1.66	Willow River	51	2	30.6	0.30	1.3
Lake Montebello						Lansing	54	18	37.2	1.89	1.7	Windom	60	2	35.6	0.67	T.
Laurel	66	21	48.3	5.61	T.	Lapeer	66	16	36.6	1.74	Winnebago	58	6	35.0	0.83	T.
Monrovia	63	25	48.0	4.90	1.0	Ludington	52 ^a	19 ^a	37.6 ^a	2.64	3.0	Winnebago	50	6	30.2	0.84	3.4
Oakland	69	11	37.1	4.32	4.2	Mackinac Island	50	18	34.7	3.55	12.0	Winona	54	13	36.2	1.37	0.8
Pocomoke City	65	26	47.2	5.07	T.	Mackinaw	50	21	34.4		Worthington	60	3	32.1	0.21	T.
Portobello	65	29	47.1	4.57	T.	Manciona	52	15	35.5	1.60	6.0	<i>Mississippi</i> .					
Princess Anne	65	23	45.8	5.22	0.5	Maple Ridge	49	4	30.4	1.75	5.0	Aberdeen	85	21	51.1	5.33
Salisbury	68	22	46.3	5.63	T.	Menominee	50	11	34.4	1.40	T.	Agricultural College	79 ^a	23 ^a	49.5 ^a	4.63	T.
Sudlersville	64	23	45.0	6.32	Midland	55	11	36.2		Anguilla	78	20	50.8	4.40
Takoma Park	66	25	43.6	4.57	T.	Montague	51	17	36.4	2.10	2.5	Austin	78	20	49.7	5.26
Taneytown	60	20	41.8	4.73	T.	Morenci	57	16	37.6	1.53	Batesville	82	20	50.8	3.37
Towson						Mount Clemens						Bay St. Louis	77	32	57.4	6.62
Van Bibber						Mount Pleasant	58	14	35.2	1.51	Bellefontaine					5.54
Western Port	62	19	40.7	3.52	1.5	Muskegon	56	18	37.0	1.95	2.0	Biloxi	81	33	59.0	4.32
Woodstock	61	24	45.0	4.59	T.	Newberry	54	4	28.3	0.80	8.0	Booneville	74 ^a	24 ^a	48.6 ^a	4.56
<i>Massachusetts</i> .						Old Mission	52	21	36.2	2.59	4.0	Brookhaven	83	23	53.6	6.90
Amherst	60	20	38.6	4.50	1.0	Olivet	52	18	36.1	1.99	2.2	Canton	82	18	51.8	4.50
Bedford	60	20	39.6	5.24	T.	Owosso	51	15	36.4	2.43	0.2	Clarksville	76 ^a	20	50.2 ^b	3.13
Bluehill (summit)	59	20	39.6	6.46	T.	Petoskey	55	22	36.0	2.40	6.0	Columbus	81	21	50.2	4.87
Chestnut Hill	61	21	41.6	7.91	T.	Plymouth	55	15	37.0	0.35	0.5	Corinth	73	22	46.8	5.13
Concord	60	19	38.8	5.42	T.	Port Austin	54	17	35.1	2.20	T.	Crystal Springs	80	24	52.8	8.24
Fall River	60	26	43.4	6.61	T.	Powers	56	6	31.6		Duck Hill	80	18	50.0	5.45
Fitchburg	59	21	38.8	4.96	3.5	Reed City						Edwards	82	22	54.0	7.14
Framingham	61	15	39.0	5.84	T.	Saginaw (W. S.)	57	15	37.4	2.02	T.	Fayette (near)	79	16	51.2	6.45
Groton	60	17	36.8	5.80	6.0	St. Ignace	59	19	35.4	2.03	5.8	Fayette (near)					6.60
Hyannis	57	25	43.0	5.88	2.0	St. Joseph	55	25	39.9	1.96	6.0	Greenville	79	24	50.2	4.46
Jefferson						South Haven	56	19	36.4	2.34	T.	Greenwood	81	21	50.0	4.40
Lawrence	60	19	39.2	5.46	0.5	Stanton	63	19	35.0	2.31	6.0	Hattiesburg	80	26	53.3	8.24
Leominster						Thomaston	50	2	29.4	2.23	15.0	Hazlehurst	81	24	52.8	7.26
Lowell	59	20	39.8	5.77	T.	Thornville	54	14	36.6	2.84	8.0	Hernando	77	25	50.6	4.18
Middleboro	62	17	41.0	5.02	Traverse City	58	20	35.4	2.31	0.2	Holly Springs	74	24	47.8	3.50
Monson	60	18	39.2	5.72	5.2	Vassar						Jackson	81	21	52.0	5.93
New Bedford	60	28	45.0		Wasco	57	15	36.7	1.80	3.0	Kosciusko	81	20	51.1	5.04
Plymouth	60	24	42.2	4.64	T.	Webberville	54	15	34.4	2.14	2.2	Lake	80	18	50.0	6.77	T.
Princeton						Wetmore	50	2	20.2	2.04	16.2	Lake Como	81	23	53.0	6.77	T.
Provincetown	56	26	42.4	5.11	T.	Whitefish Point	48	18	33.4	3.36	22.2	Laurel	81	23	53.4	5.61
Salem						Woodlawn	51	2	30.4	2.65	11.5	Leakesville	83	26	55.8	9.29
Sterling						Ypsilanti	55	15	37.0	2.43	7.5	Louisville	81	20	51.2	4.12
Taunton	60	16	40.0	6.87	T.	<i>Minnesota</i> .						McNeill	81	28	56.6	6.61
Westboro	60	20	40.8	6.41	T.	Albert Lea	55	8	33.8	0.85	T.	Macon	80	21	49.8	3.78
Weston						Alexandria	55	4	30.4	0.28	0.5	Magnolia	83	26	55.6	5.88
Williamstown	58	20	37.1	3.42	1.7	Angus	53	—2	28.0		Monticello	81	21	53.6	5.56
Worcester	58	22	40.4	4.57	3.1	Bagley	49	—4	28.2	0.59	1.0	Natchez	81	26	53.4	8.32
<i>Michigan</i> .						Beaumont	56	—2	30.8	0.65	0.5	Okolona	78	22	49.0	5.46
Adrian	57	16	37.0	1.86	0.5	Blackduck	53	2	29.2		Pearlington	80	29	56.1	6.66
Agricultural College	54	17	36.0	1.83	0.3	Caledonia	50	—8	27.9	0.29	1.9	Pecan	79	31	56.8	7.30
Allegan	62	16	36.6	2.60	3.0	Cass Lake	52	9	33.0	0.17	0.1	Pittsboro	77	20	49.4	4.46
Alma	57	13	36.0	2.98	T.	Crookston	51	2	28.0	0.08	3.0	Pontotoc	74	23	49.8	4.24
Ann Arbor						Detroit	55	—3	26.4	0.13	3.0	Porterville					5.13
Arbela	55	16	36.7	2.45	0.5	Farmington	54	10	34.3	0.70	0.1	Port Gibson	83	20	51.8	6.36	T.
Ball Mountain	58	16	35.3	2.91	1.5	Faribault	56	7	34.0	0.54	T.	Quitman	81	19	52.4	6.14
Baraga						Fergus Falls	56	7	33.7	1.22	1.2	Ripley	77	20	48.8	6.14
Battle Creek	54	17	36.6	1.97	0.5	Floodwood	54	4	31.5	0.16	0.7	Rosedale	80	20	51.8	3.31
Bay City	55	15	36.5	1.40	T.	Fort Ripley	52	9	33.0	0.17	0.1	Shoecoe	79	19	51.8	3.68
Berlin	53	15	35.2	1.98	2.0	Glencoe	55	5	32.9	0.61	Suffolk	81	23	53.7	7.27
Big Rapids	51	11	34.6	2.50	T.	Grand Meadow	56	6	34.1	0.79	4.5	Swan Lake					5.00
Blaney						Hallock	52	—8	26.6	0.15	1.5	Tenuta					5.06
Bloomingdale	58	20	39.2	3.60	12.0	Halstead	54	—									

TABLE II.—Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued.

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth snow.	
<i>Missouri—Cont'd.</i>	°	°	°	In.	In.	<i>Montana—Cont'd.</i>	°	°	°	In.	In.	<i>Nebraska—Cont'd.</i>	°	°	°	In.	In.	
Houston	72	5	44.4	2.67	1.30	Saltese	50	13	32.5	3.45	12.0	Oakland	77	11	39.3	0.90	
Huntsville	73	15	42.6	3.85	T.	Snowshoe	69	1	35.8	0.02	T.	Odell	2.06	
Ironton	78	19	46.6	4.02	T.	Springbrook	70	8	41.2	Ord	65°	14°	38.1°	T.	0.00
Jackson	67	18	41.0	1.23	T.	Tokna	68	0	33.4	T.	T.	Osceola	66	12	39.6	0.62	T.	
Jefferson City	73	19	46.2	2.55	T.	Tosten	63	17	35.4	T.	T.	Palmer*1	66	11	40.6	0.92	T.	
Joplin	66	25	44.0	1.51	0.2	Troy	60	23	36.8	2.31	13.4	Pawnee City	70	11	40.8	0.63	
Kidder	76	20	46.6	3.72	T.	Upper Lake	61	9	37.4	T.	T.	Plymouth	70	1	36.6	0.10	1.0	
Koshkonong	77	22	45.2	1.84	T.	Utica	69	—5	35.7	T.	T.	Purdum	69	5	39.0	0.17	T.	
Lamar	77	18	45.2	1.61	T.	Wolf Creek	70	20	46.2	0.00	Ravenna	70	6	37.7	0.04	0.2	
Lamotte	78	18	44.0	1.26	<i>Nebraska</i>	70	4	36.9	0.05	0.5	Redcloud	69	5	39.0	0.05	
Lebanon	70	19	43.0	1.36	T.	Ainsworth	68	1	38.4	T.	T.	Republican	0.10	
Lexington	67	16	42.4	1.40	T.	Albion	67	—1	35.4	0.26	T.	St. Libby	70	7	39.2	T.	T.	
Liberty	76	18	45.2	2.90	T.	Alma	68	0	33.4	T.	T.	Schuyler	72	—11	32.1	0.35	3.5	
Lockwood	66	12	41.2	1.52	T.	Anoka	70	—1	35.4	0.05	0.5	Scottsbluff	66	12	39.3	0.10	1.0	
Louisiana	74	18	45.6	4.40	Arapahoe	67	—	35.4	0.16	Seward	65	0	35.6	T.	T.	
Marble Hill	67	18	43.2	1.32	T.	Arcadia	67	16	40.5	0.79	T.	Springview	65	10	36.5	T.	T.	
Marshall	67	17	41.0	1.48	T.	Ashton	68	11	35.4	0.06	Stanton	70	8	36.5	T.	T.	
Maryville	64	15	39.3	1.63	T.	Atkinson	65	13	40.6	0.82	T.	Strang	0.10	1.0	
Mexico	67	16	44.9	2.54	T.	Auburn	65	13	40.6	0.82	T.	Stratton	2.12	
Mountain Grove	70	16	44.9	2.91	T.	Benkleman	69	10	38.5	0.06	Superior	64	10	37.0	0.10	
Mount Vernon	82	15	45.6	3.75	T.	Blair	64	14	39.4	0.07	T.	Syracuse	1.96	
Neosho	74	14	45.2	2.91	T.	Bloomfield	69	6	36.2	0.09	0.5	Table Rock	
Nevada	77	18	43.6	1.81	T.	Blue Hill	70	—	37.0	0.20	Tecumseh	66	13	40.0	0.83	T.	
New Madrid	67	20	44.0	1.29	T.	Bridgeport	71	—6	33.6	0.60	6.0	Tekamah	64	13	38.4	0.90	T.	
New Palestine	67	15	44.6	1.96	T.	Broken Bow	73	0	37.0	0.06	T.	Turlington	64	13	39.9	0.79	T.	
Oakfield	68	20	44.6	1.96	T.	Burchard	67	—	37.0	0.00	University Farm	67	13	39.8	1.06	
Oiden	73	11	45.7	3.23	T.	Burwell	65	12	39.8	1.34	T.	Wahoo	68	7	37.4	0.08	0.3	
Oregon	63	13	39.8	1.40	T.	Callaway	77	0	40.3	T.	T.	Watertown	0.20	2.0	
Perryville	72	22	44.8	3.63	T.	Cambridge	70	—2	38.5	0.27	1.5	Weeping Water	65	12	38.2	1.42	T.	
Princeton	62	14	38.9	1.27	0.1	Central City	61	—	37.0	0.00	Westpoint	68	10	39.1	0.30	
Rolls	70	18	43.0	2.12	T.	Chester	69	14	38.6	0.52	Wilber	0.00	
St. Charles	67	18	43.6	1.73	Columbus	64	12	40.0	0.26	Wilsonville	58	4	33.0	0.10	1.0	
St. Joseph	73	19	45.8	5.17	T.	Crete	66	4	34.7	T.	T.	Winnebago	61	9	40.0	0.39	0.5	
Sikeston	62	15	42.4	1.66	Culbertson	66	—4	34.7	T.	T.	Wymore	69	9	40.0	1.52	T.	
Steppenfille	70	15	42.4	1.66	Curtis	66	4	34.7	T.	T.	York	70	12	37.4	0.15	T.	
Sublett	62	13	39.8	0.55	T.	Dalton	66	14	39.4	0.17	<i>Nevada</i>	70	14	37.4	0.44	
Trenton	61	16	40.2	1.18	T.	Davis	66	14	39.4	0.30	Amos	65	14	38.2	1.00	10.0	
Unionville	60	13	39.5	1.25	T.	Deacon	67	15	41.4	1.76	T.	Austin	57	26	39.0	0.00	
Versailles	75	16	44.3	Delaware	67	15	41.4	1.76	T.	Battle Mountain	65	20	41.2	0.26	0.0		
Warrensburg	75	19	44.5	1.43	T.	Dickinson	67	12	37.0	0.20	1.5	Beowawe*2	61	20	44.4	0.20	2.0	
Warrenton	64	18	41.8	2.05	T.	Dodge	67	—4	32.6	0.11	0.2	Carlin*1	68	10	32.7	T.	T.	
Warsaw	80	15	44.4	1.69	T.	Franklin	68	7	39.0	0.18	T.	Carson Dam	69	20	41.2	0.26	0.0	
Wheatland	75	13	44.2	1.52	Fremont	67	13	39.3	0.60	T.	Clover Valley	64	10	37.0	0.27	1.2	
Willow Springs	72	13	44.2	3.03	Fullerton	70	9	37.7	T.	T.	Columbia	62	14	40.4	0.00	
<i>Montana</i>	56	13	37.0	T.	Genesee	72	9	39.4	0.15	T.	Eureka	64	8	38.4	0.70	10.0		
Anaconda	63	14	36.2	0.11	Gering	67	11	36.7	0.05	T.	Fallon	76	18	39.8	0.21	
Augusta*	69	5	31.0	Gosper	66	1	34.1	T.	Fernley	68	20	42.4	T.	T.			
Babb*	54	10	36.6	Fairbury	73	12	41.5	0.64	T.	Geyser	68	—	37.4	0.10	1.0		
Billings	72	5	40.2	0.10	T.	Fairmont	71	8	37.0	0.20	Golconda	69	17	40.2	0.20	2.0	
Bowen	57	0	29.6	0.58	5.5	Fort Robinson	72	—4	32.6	0.11	0.2	Halleck*2	65	10	38.2	0.21	2.1	
Broadview	68	—4	36.0	0.04	0.4	Franklin	68	7	39.0	0.18	T.	Humboldt*1	74	30	49.0	0.05	0.5	
Busby	69	—7	34.0	0.28	2.4	Freemont	67	13	39.3	0.60	T.	Jean	74	38	57.9	0.00	
Butte	59	18	36.6	0.10	1.0	Fullerton	70	9	37.7	T.	Las Vegas	78	22	52.6	0.00		
Canyon Ferry	57	16	36.4	0.22	Garrison	67	—2	38.0	0.24	T.	Leeterville	67	18	40.4	0.34	10.0	
Cascade	62	7	42.0	0.03	Gates	66	—4	32.6	0.20	Lewers Ranch						

TABLE II.—Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued.

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.	
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.
<i>New Jersey—Cont'd.</i>						<i>New York—Cont'd.</i>						<i>North Carolina.</i>					
Clayton	65	22	44.2	5.85	T.	Allegany	58	4	36.7	2.38	7.4	Banners Elk	64	15	38.6	2.84	2.5
College Farm	64	20	42.1	5.48	1.2	Amsterdam	55	18	35.7	4.06	8.0	Beaufort	71	35	54.6	4.58	
Culvers Lake				5.70	3.0	Angleton	56	19	34.4	1.38	2.0	Brevard	70	16	44.0	6.80	0.5
Dover	55	18	39.0	6.98	1.5	Athens	60	22	39.2	5.00	2.5	Brewers	75	20	46.2	4.32	1.0
Egg Harbor City				6.95	0.2	Auburn	59	20	37.8	2.30	7.0	Carooleen	75	23	47.2	5.81	T.
Elizabeth	60	25	43.9	4.99	1.0	Avon	59	19	36.2	2.19	0.2	Chalybeate Springs	79	21	49.0	6.29	
Engiewood	62	30	45.0	5.69	3.0	Raidwinsville	60 ^a	21 ^a	39.4 ^a	2.73	—	Chapel Hill	77	26	48.0	5.17	
Flemington	60	22	45.0	5.95	1.5	Ballston Lake	58	19	36.2	3.66	3.2	Clinton	80	24	51.8	1.58	
Friesburg	64	23	44.2	5.76	T.	Bedford	62	11	37.3	6.27	1.0	Eagletown	76	26	49.2	5.47	T.
Hightstown	63	22	43.8	4.19	T.	Blue Mountain Lake				12.0		Fayetteville	77	26	51.4	3.52	
Imlaysatown	63	21	42.8	4.61	0.4	Bouckville	52	12	33.1	3.65	8.5	Goldsboro	74 ^b	27 ^b	47.4 ^b	4.18	
Indian Mills	67	18	43.9	4.94	0.8	Cape Vincent	56	20	36.6	3.20	1.5	Greenville	76	27	47.0	5.54	
Jersey City	60	28	44.8	5.34	T.	Carmel	58	18	39.2	5.69	1.5	Henderson	75	27	47.6	5.38	T.
Lambertville	60	20	42.8	5.73	0.5	Carvers Falls	58	17	35.2	3.09	5.0	Horse Cove	67	22	43.6	9.22	1.0
Layton	59	15	38.2	5.18	2.0	Chatham	59	20	38.4	3.68	2.5	Hot Springs	78	20	46.6	4.31	
Long Branch	64	24	45.2	6.17	T.	Chazy	55	7	34.3	1.08	7.5	Kinston	79	25	51.2	3.19	
Moorestown	62	21	43.8	5.49	0.4	Cooperstown	54	15	34.2	4.01	10.0	Lexington	75	22	47.2	5.81	
Newark	64	23	43.4	5.01	0.2	Cortland	53	12	34.3	2.86	4.9	Lincolnton	57	23	42.5	2.30	
New Brunswick	64	19	42.2	6.00	1.0	Cutchogue	68	26	43.4	6.46	1.0	Louisburg	74	24	48.1	4.73	T.
Oceanic	60	24	44.2	5.06	T.	Dannemora	54	12	33.2	1.21	4.9	Lumberton	79	23	50.8	2.45	
Paterson	62	24	45.8	5.27	0.6	De Ruyter	54	7	34.8	3.21	9.4	Manteo	70	35	52.5	5.08	
Phillipsburg	59	22	42.0	5.63	2.0	Easton						Marion	73	23	46.8	5.24	1.5
Pleasantville				5.83	2.0	Elba	62	21	36.1	3.38	3.0	Marshall	73	20	46.0	2.36	
Rancocas				5.37	0.3	Elmira	59	17	38.8	2.33		Moncure	78	20	48.4	4.77	
Rivervale	65	16	40.6 ^c	3.45	2.0	Faust	52	2	31.6	1.51	10.0	Monroe	78	19	47.8	5.00	
Somerville	69	20	42.6	5.94	1.5	Fayetteville	57	18	37.5	3.37	3.0	Morganton	74	20	46.0	4.76	
South Orange	60	23	42.2	5.18	1.0	Fort Plain	56	20	37.8	4.49	6.0	Mount Airy	70	18	45.4	2.5	
Sussex	59	18	40.9	5.23	1.5	Franklinville	57	5	34.7	2.52	6.2	Mount Holly	75	22	46.0	5.51	2.0
Toms River ^d	63	16	43.6			Glens Falls	56	18	36.2	3.16	3.5	Nashville	75	23	49.6	7.03	T.
Trenton	64	22	45.8	5.52	T.	Gloversville	54	16	33.6	4.10	10.3	New Bern	79	27	51.6	4.51	
Tuckerton	64	19	43.9	5.89	3.0	Greenfield	57	17	35.8	3.72	4.5	Patterson	68	20	42.8	3.00	T.
Vineland	64	23	44.5	5.89	T.	Greenwich	59 ^e	19 ^e	36.4 ^e	1.46	2.0	Pinehurst	77	28	51.2	4.92	
Woodbine	65	21	44.9	5.78	2.2	Griffin Corners	57	8	32.7	4.78	4.0	Ramsour	77	18	44.8	5.44	
<i>New Mexico.</i>						Harkness	57	18	34.3	3.23	9.0	Reidaville	73	22	46.0	5.51	
Alamogordo	80	23	48.8	0.75		Haskinville						Rockingham	75	22	53.2	5.15	
Albert	79	21	45.3	0.55	2.0	Hemlock	56	23	38.2	2.80	T.	Salem	75	20	45.4	5.26	
Albuquerque	72	15	43.1 ^f	0.42		Hunt	60	15	37.8	1.15	1.5	Salisbury	78	35	57.6	5.21	
Alto				1.06	9.7	Indian Lake	57	7	36.2	5.90	7.5	Saxon	72	20	45.0	5.07	
Bell Ranch	72	18	44.7	T.	Ithaca	56	22	38.2	1.92	4.2	Scotland Neck	76	27	50.9	4.82		
Bloomfield	68	12	39.4	0.44	1.6	Jamestown	59	14	37.4	2.90	11.0	Selma	76 ^g	30 ^g	50.5 ^g	6.74	
Cambray				1.10		Jeffersonville	58	13	36.2	4.94	6.0	Settle	76	16	46.0	4.04	2.3
Carlsbad	75	26	47.3	1.22		Keene Valley	58	12	33.0	4.99	7.0	Snow Hill	78	23	51.2	3.71	
Chama	67	— 3	36.7	0.20	2.0	Keepawa	55	3	29.4	4.78	25.7	Southern Pines	80	27	51.6	5.60	
Cimarron	76	10	38.2	0.87	10.0	Keuka Park	60	20	37.8	2.56	3.2	Southport	74	31	55.7	2.35	
Cliff				0.67		Kings Ferry						Tarboro	79	25	50.4	5.08	
Datil	68	12	39.8	0.02	0.5	Lake George	57	19	37.1	3.72	3.4	Vade Mecum	70	17	44.6	5.93	1.0
Deming	80	16	46.6	1.26		Le Roy	60	21	37.6	3.01	8.1	Wash Woods	68	32	51.8	5.62	
Dulce	70	7	37.6	0.55	5.0	Liberty	54	17	35.2	3.92	10.0	Waynesville	72	17	44.5	4.52	3.1
Eagle Rock Ranch	70	6	35.2	0.80	10.0	Little Falls City Res.	56	18	35.3	4.33	5.0	Weidlon	79	25	48.6	4.94	T.
Elizabethtown	59	0	29.0	0.20	2.0	Lockport	56	22	37.9	3.15	0.9	Willard				3.67	
Elk	72	19	40.9	1.85	T.	Lowville	56	16	33.8	4.37	5.0	<i>North Dakota.</i>					
Espanola	63	12	38.1	0.14		Lyndonville						Amenia	55	— 1	30.2	0.05	0.5
Estancia	72	4	36.1	2.11	12.0	Lyons	60	20	39.0	4.51	9.0	Apelin	62	9	32.6	0.20	1.5
Fairview	65	14	38.3			Middletown	58	25	40.0	5.02	3.0	Beach	68	4	32.0	0.20	0.5
Fort Stanton	68	17	39.9	0.99	7.5	Mohonk Lake	56 ^a	24 ^a	37.4 ^a	4.93	2.0	Bottineau	55	— 7	26.5	0.04	T.
Fort Union	71	10	35.7	0.66	T.	Moirs	60	4	34.4	2.55	16.0	Buford	64	— 1	33.7	T.	T.
Fort Wingate	66	12	37.8	0.80	8.0	Mount Hope	63	19	41.7	7.80		Cando	59	— 10	26.0	0.15	1.5
Fruitland	66	17	39.4	0.20	2.0	Newark Valley						Coal Harbor	60	3	31.2	0.20	2.0
Gage	71	21	46.9	1.10		New Lisbon	56	8	33.0	3.81	11.0	Crosby	60	2	29.0	0.15	1.5
Glen	77	19	44.0	1.													

TABLE II.—Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued.

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.	
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.
<i>North Dakota—Cont'd.</i>																	
Valley City	57	— 3	30.7	0.10	1.0	Zanesville	80	16	46.8	0.87	T.	Oregon—Cont'd.	61	23	40.0	11.03	42.0
Walhalla	55	— 4	28.2	T.	T.	Alva	79	14	47.7	1.13	T.	Pompeii	66	39	51.0	7.86	
White Earth ¹	51	— 5	24.0	T.	T.	Arapaho	79	18	50.0	2.77	T.	Port Orford	64	18	38.6	0.78	
Willow City	72	— 10	23.3	0.00	T.	Buffalo	82	12	48.7	0.55	T.	Prineville	68	12	38.0	0.10	1.0
Wishak.	60 ²	— 4 ³	31.6 ⁴	T.	T.	Cache	75	15	46.6	1.24	T.	Riverside	69	32	48.1	4.35	
<i>Ohio.</i>						Chandler	80	14	48.8	1.28	T.	Salem	60	32	48.1	0.38	
Akron	55	21	38.2	0.84	T.	Chatanooga	86 ⁵	14	48.8 ⁶	1.23	T.	Silver Lake	61	29	48.0	5.63	
Amesville	63	14	41.8	1.77	T.	Cloud Chief	78	14	48.5	1.14	T.	Stafford	70	27	44.4	2.22	
Bangorville	63	21	37.8	2.65	T.	Dacoma	76	16	46.4	1.30	T.	The Dalles	62	31	50.5	7.10	
Bellefontaine	65	16	38.2	2.05	T.	Eldorado	82	14	48.1	0.56	T.	Toledo	74	25	45.1	0.89	
Benton Ridge	53	19	38.4	1.90	T.	Erie	80	12	47.6	0.76	T.	Umatilla	60	12	38.1	0.38	T.
Bladensburg	56	11	36.4	1.60	T.	Fort Sill	—	—	—	0.70	T.	Vale	60	12	38.1	0.41	1.0
Bowling Green	53	19	38.2	1.89	T.	Gage	83	8	44.0	0.60	T.	Van	64	16	38.0	2.23	T.
Bucyrus	57	16	37.4	1.87	T.	Grand	76	10	45.6	0.56	T.	Wallowa	63 ¹	11 ¹	40.5 ¹	1.81	
Cadiz	58	21	39.2	1.66	1.0	Guthrie	76	20	47.3	0.87	T.	Wamie	69	16	40.0	0.74	
Cambridge	63	16	39.4	1.65	T.	Harrington	78	8	45.9	0.91	T.	Warm Spring	—	—	—	1.70	
Camp Dennison	64	17	40.2	2.09	T.	Healdton	79	8	47.5	3.03	T.	Wasco	65	26	44.5	3.56	
Canal Dover	56	16	38.0	1.44	T.	Hennessey	77 ¹	21 ¹	47.2 ¹	0.72	T.	Weston	—	—	—	0.37	
Canton	56	20	38.2	1.86	T.	Hobart	80	17	49.9	0.72	T.	Yonna	—	—	—	—	
Circleville	60	20	40.2	2.07	T.	Hoover	85	10	43.8	0.28	T.	<i>Pennsylvania.</i>	—	—	—	—	
Clarington	60	19	41.0	2.78	T.	Jefferson	76	20	45.7	1.29	T.	Aleppo	66	13	38.9	2.73	4.0
Clarksville	60	20	40.8	2.77	T.	Kenton	80	6	42.2	0.75	T.	Altoona	60	15	37.6	3.33	
Cleveland <i>b.</i>	56	23	39.2	1.08	1.3	Linton	77	17	47.2	0.72	T.	Baldwin	55	16	36.8	2.44	T.
Coatton	64	12	40.1	2.18	0.8	McComb	76	13	47.2	2.10	T.	Bellefonte	60	19	41.4	2.42	
Columbus	59	18	39.2	1.79	T.	Mangum	75	17	49.8	0.80	T.	Browns Lock	—	—	—	7.28	T.
Dayton	60	18	39.8	2.56	0.1	Meeker	76	15	45.5	1.65	T.	California	68	21	42.6	1.68	T.
Defiance	56	17	37.6	2.29	0.1	Mutual	80	11	46.4	1.00	T.	Cassandra	60	18	36.6	2.60	3.0
Delaware	58	15	38.3	1.70	T.	Neola	78	16	47.9	1.43	T.	Center Hall	67	17	41.1	2.64	2.0
Demos	61	21	40.2	1.85	2.0	Newkirk	73	21	47.4	1.34	T.	Clarion	—	—	—	2.21	
Findlay	55	16	36.8	2.05	T.	Norman	—	—	—	1.33	T.	Claysville	63	16	39.0	2.08	5.0
Frankfort	63	19	41.2	2.13	T.	Okeene	77	17	47.1	1.10	T.	Coatsville	63	21	42.6	7.62	4.2
Fremont	57	20	39.6	1.77	T.	Pawhuska	77	16	47.3	0.87	T.	Confluence	—	—	—	3.22	
Garretttsville	56	15	37.4	2.12	1.0	Perry	78	20	48.6	0.92	T.	Davis Island Dam	—	—	—	2.44	
Graville	57	17	38.6	1.90	T.	Sac and Fox Agency	77	17	48.9	1.03	T.	Derry	70	12	40.8	2.88	
Gratiot	58	18	38.4	1.73	T.	Shawnee	77	18	48.6	2.49	T.	DoylesTown	—	—	—	5.89	
Green	67	21	43.0	2.94	T.	Snyder	78	16	48.8	0.75	T.	Drifton	55	19	39.0	4.25	9.4
Greenvillle	57	14	36.1	1.85	0.4	Stillwater	76	21	46.4	0.95	T.	Dushore	55	12	36.4	2.68	6.0
Hedges	56	21	39.5	2.44	T.	Temple	89 ¹	19	52.2 ²	0.66	T.	East Mauch Chunk	58	18	40.3	5.99	4.5
Hillhouse	56	13	37.2	1.93	1.0	Waakomis	76	16	47.2	0.80	T.	Easton	58	23	42.2	5.46	1.8
Hiram	58	16	38.2	2.48	4.0	Weatherford	76	12	46.8	0.80	T.	Emporium	57	13	38.0	2.28	1.5
Hudson	56	15	36.0	1.71	T.	Whiteside	76	19	47.2	1.03	T.	Ephrata	59	19	41.1	4.15	2.0
Ironton	71	17	44.0	2.58	T.	Oregon	—	—	—	—	T.	Everett	63	16	39.3	3.48	6.0
Jacksonburg	63	21	40.1	3.58	2.0	Alba	—	—	—	1.05	T.	Forks of Neshaminy	—	—	—	5.90	
Kenton	56	20	37.0	2.01	T.	Albany	72	30	47.1	T.	T.	Franklin	58	12	37.0	2.65	T.
Killbuck	54	16	38.2	1.75	T.	Ashland	71	28	44.4	1.80	T.	Freepoort	63	17	38.4	2.27	T.
Lancaster	63	20	40.4	2.61	T.	Astoria	73	38	52.2	10.88	T.	George School	61	20	48.0	4.69	1.4
Lima	55	18	38.4	2.41	T.	Aurora (near)	69	31	46.8	6.82	T.	Gettysburg	60	19	41.2	3.72	2.5
McConnellsville	60	16	40.0	1.38	T.	Bay City	81	32	53.2	13.48	T.	Girardville	—	—	—	4.41	12.0
Marietta	63	21	42.6	1.67	T.	Bend	68	12	39.4	0.76	T.	Gordon	60	17	38.9	4.50	
Marion	60	16	38.7	2.06	T.	Black Butte	60	31	44.5	6.61	T.	Greenville	56	16	37.6	2.94	3.5
Medina	58	16	38.0	1.82	T.	Blalock	64	29	46.8	0.73	T.	Grove City	58	15	36.6	1.97	0.4
Milfordton	59	14	36.8	1.67	T.	Buckhorn	67	28	45.4	8.25	T.	Hamburg	58	19	39.6	3.02	1.5
Milligan	60	13	39.0	1.27	T.	Bullrun	65	31	46.2	11.92	T.	Hanover	64	23	44.0	3.65	
Millport	56	14	37.0	1.55	0.2	Burns	64	15	37.0	0.51	T.	Herrs Island Dam	—	—	—	2.02	
Montpelier	54	16	38.0	2.07	1.0	Cascade Locks	60	32	46.8	12.53	T.	Huntingdon	60	17	39.8	2.87	1.5
Napoleon	56	19	39.5	1.69	0.5	Condon	62	22	40.0	0.75	T.	Hyndman	63	16	40.6	4.16	4.0
Nellie	70	14	40.6	0.99	T.	Coquille	—	—	—	6.07	T.	Indiana	64	18	38.4	2.47	T.
New Alexandria	65	17	41.2	1.45	2.0	Corvallis	70	28	46.8	7.32	T.	Irvine	68	15	40.5	2.12	T.
New Berlin	55	18	37.3	1.67	T.	Dayville	67	18	41.6	0.60	T.	Johnstown	64	19	40.2	3.88	T.
New Bremen	56	17	39.2	1.88	0.3	Doraville	66	30	46.1	8.09	T.	Kenn					

TABLE II.—Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued.

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.	
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.		Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.
<i>Rhode Island.</i>	°	°	°	Inz.	Inz.	<i>Tennessee.</i>	°	°	°	Inz.	Inz.	<i>Texas—Cont'd.</i>	°	°	°	Inz.	Inz.
Bristol	59	28	44.2	5.37		Ashwood	79	21	46.6	4.52		Eagle Pass	82	33	56.9	2.93	
Kingston	60	21	41.0	8.03	T.	Benton	72	20	47.6	4.87	T.	Earl's Ranch	6.82	T.	
Providence				5.95		Bluff City			4.58		Encinal	86	39	66.6	2.21	
<i>South Carolina.</i>						Bolivar	75	22	46.8	4.57		Falfurrias	90	36	63.6	1.52	
Aiken	76	26	53.6	4.30		Bristol	68	20	45.3	4.72	T.	Fort Clark	76	29	53.6	5.25	
Allendale	76	32	54.4	2.75		Brownsville	74	25	48.8	3.19		Fort McIntosh	87	32	60.2	2.20	
Anderson	87	27	51.2	6.03		Byrdstown	76	20	47.4	5.36	T.	Fort Stockton	77	25	51.6	1.78	0.5
Batesburg	76	29	50.9	3.97		Carthage	73	20	46.8	4.97		Fredericksburg	76	25	52.1	6.37	1.0
Beaufort	79	32	57.6	1.92		Cedar Hill	74	23	46.8	5.00	T.	Gainesville	75	22	52.0	3.25	
Bennettsville	80	27	52.7	3.67		Celina			5.61		Georgetown	80	23	54.8	10.18	
Blackville	79	29	54.8	3.70		Clarksville	73	21	45.6	4.58	T.	Grapevine	85	19	54.2	3.82	T.
Bowman	79	28	53.7	2.76		Clinton			6.38		Greenville	77	20	51.9	3.69	
Calhoun Falls				5.97		Covington	75	23	47.8	4.60		Hallettaville	79	30	57.8	6.76	
Camden	75	25	50.4	3.96		Dandridge			5.16		Haskell	80	21	50.5	2.19	1.2
Catawba				6.10		Decatur	73	18	47.0	6.40	1.0	Hebronville		1.59		
Cheraw	78	26	49.6	4.68		Dickson	74	20	46.4	5.03		Hempstead		9.90		
Clarks Hill	76	26	51.5	4.40		Dover	73	19	46.7	3.99		Henrietta	82	23	50.4	2.41	
Clemson College	71	26	49.0	4.85		Dyersburg	75	24	47.6	5.00		Hereford		0.71	7.5	
Conway	79	28	53.5	2.78		Elsizbethon	68	21	45.5	3.15	T.	Hondo	77	31	54.9	6.86	
Dillon	78	24	53.0	2.98		Erasmus	70	14	42.2	5.00	0.5	Houston	84	29	57.0	10.30	
Edisto				6.26		Florence	72	22	46.4	4.63	T.	Jewett	78	19	53.2	9.38	
Effingham				4.80		Franklin	72	22	45.6	5.93		Junction		5.46		
Georgetown	78	32	56.0	2.16		Harriman			5.96		Kaufmann	77	19	53.1	6.42	
Greenville	72	26	45.0	6.05	T.	Hohenwald	76	17	46.6	4.46		Keene	79	21	53.3	5.81	
Greenwood	75	28	48.4	8.25		Iron City	75	17	46.2	5.65		Kerrville	77	25	51.8	8.38	
Heath Spring	72	26	50.3	4.83		Jackson	76	21	49.7	3.58		Knickerbocker	77	24	51.0	2.18	T.
Kingtree	79	28	55.4	2.42		Johnsonville	75	19	46.2	4.62		Lampasas	79	20	51.0	6.20	
Liberty	74	25	49.0	6.58		Jonesboro	68	20	44.7	3.61	T.	Lapara		1.45		
Little Mountain	78	30	51.2	4.55		Kenton	76	21	48.2	4.15	T.	Laureles Ranch		4.57		
Newberry	77	26	50.2	5.59		Lafayette	73	20	45.0		T.	Liberty	84	33	58.0	6.75	
St. George	79	30	55.9	1.74		Lewisburg	75	19	46.4	5.04	T.	Liano	80	18	54.4	4.80	
St. Matthews	75	31	52.1	5.43		London			6.55	T.	Longview	79	22	51.6	10.89	
Saluda	79	24	51.8	4.44		Lynnville	72	21	47.8	5.39		Lufkin	82	20	54.4	11.21	
Santuck	75	26	49.0	7.06		McMinville	72	18	45.8	4.76	0.4	McLean	76	12	45.6	0.43	T.
Smith's Mills				1.37		Maryville	70	21	46.7	5.62	1.5	Memphis	80	15	49.0	0.56	
Society Hill	75	28	50.5	3.84		Milan	70	23	46.2	4.60		Mexia	78	22	52.6	7.46	T.
Spartanburg	76	25	48.8	6.44		Newport	68	24	46.0	4.46		Miami	78	9	44.7	0.58	T.
Statesburg	75	33	54.2	4.44		Palmetto	77	20	48.9	4.52	T.	Mount Blanco	77	16	46.2	1.10	T.
Summerville	83	28	56.2	2.12		Pinewood	75	17	44.3	4.76		Nacogdoches	79	21	52.8	10.39	T.
Trenton	75*	30	51.6	4.04		Pope	78	16	46.4			Nazareth	74	16	44.2	0.59	
Trial	80	27	54.2	2.13		Rogersville	69	19	45.6	5.06	T.	New Braunfels	79	28	57.3	9.28	
Walhalla	75	26	50.0			Rugby	72	12	40.4	4.19	1.5	Panter	79	17	51.6	5.75	0.1
Walterboro	85	28	57.7	1.55		Savannah	75	20	46.5			Pierce		10.04		
Winnabow	77	30	51.2	2.68		Sevierville	71	19	46.2	5.44		Plomona	78	7	42.4	0.65	1.0
Winthrop College	75	27*	50.0	5.86		Sewanee	68	21	45.1	5.65		Port Lavaca	82	34	60.4	9.57	
Yemassee	74	29	53.8	1.61		Silver Lake	62	19	40.8	4.70	1.5	Quanah	78	18	52.0	7.24	T.
Yorkville	77	30	50.4	6.52		Sparta	72	18	45.4	3.75	0.5	Rossville		5.67		
<i>South Dakota.</i>						Springdale	75	17	44.0	6.07	1.0	Runge		1.04		
Aberdeen	64	0	32.2	T.		Springville	74	19	45.8	4.51	T.	Sabinal	83	27	57.0	4.00	
Academy	63	3	38.6	0.06	0.2	Tellico Plains	75	20	49.1	5.41	0.5	San Angelo	78	25	49.6	2.61	T.
Armour	70	2	33.8	0.02	T.	Tracy City	77	21	45.0			San Antonio	80	27	56.4	6.78	
Ashcroft	70	4	34.6	0.05	0.5	Trenton	74	21	47.3	4.68		San Saba	78	19	51.8	5.73	
Bowles	68	6*	35.0	0.15	1.5	Tullahoma	71	18	45.6	5.83		Santa Gertrudes	79	18	49.8	3.97	
Brookings	63	—	1	23.9	0.10	Utonia City	70*	20	45.2*	4.87		Seymour	79	18	49.8	2.35	T.
Castlewood	61	—	1	32.5	0.22	Waynesboro	74	19	46.4	5.98	T.	Sherman		2.78		
Centerville	64	6	36.2	0.05	0.5	Wilderville	71	22	46.7	4.18		Victoria	86	32	59.0	7.41	
Chamberlain	72	4	39.4	T.	Yukon	72	24	47.6	5.77		Waco	78	29	53.6	6.54		
Cherry Creek	70	2	35.7	T.								Waxahachie	81	14	51.2	5.86	
Clark	60	2	32.0	0.18	0.7							Wharton	82	30	58.0	9.77	
Clifton	66	0	31.6	T.								Wichita Falls	79	19	54.3	1.94	
De Smet	63	4	35.3	0.10	1.0							Wills Point	75	19	51.8	5.35	
Elkpoint	64	10	37.6	T.								Utah.		2.0		
Faulkton	61	4	34.0	T.								Alpine		0.63	7.0	
Flandreau	59	2	32.9	0.08	0.7							Annabella				

TABLE II.—Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued.

Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.			Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.			Stations.	Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)			Precipita- tion.		
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.			Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.			Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Rain and melted snow.	Total depth of snow.	
<i>Utah—Cont'd.</i>	o	o	o	In.	In.		<i>Washington—Cont'd.</i>	o	o	o	In.	In.		<i>West Virginia—Cont'd.</i>	o	o	o	In.	In.	
Marion	67	8	36.2	0.02	0.2		Conconully	57	19	36.9	0.87	0.5		Upper tract	67	17	42.2	2.35	T.	
Marysville	57	12	32.0	0.10	0.4		Coupeville	64	34	48.0	2.13			Valley Fork	71	14	46.0	2.40	T.	
Meadowville	64	13	35.8	0.40	2.5		Crescent	56	20	38.2	1.36	1.0		Webster Springs	70	20	42.8	5.42		
Millford	64	13	35.8	0.35	2.5		Cusick	55	18	37.3	2.17	7.0		Wellamburg	58	22	39.0	2.42	4.5	
Millville							Dayton	63	26	44.3	2.14			Weston	68	16	40.2	3.14	T.	
Minerville							Detroit	62	31	47.3	9.89			Wheeling	67	19	42.4	1.62	T.	
Moab	68	16	40.3	0.27	T.		East Sound	60	29	43.8	4.54			Williamson	67			3.01	T.	
Morgan	65	10	36.2	0.42	4.0		Ellensburg	62	18	38.6	0.66			<i>Wisconsin.</i>						
Mount Nebo	64	17	37.0	0.53	3.0		Ephrata	78	25	45.2	0.50			Amherst	58	9	33.8	1.60	T.	
Mount Pleasant	69	10	37.8	0.28	2.8		Gardena	70	21	47.9	2.25			Antigo	50	5	31.3			
Nephi							Hatton	69	17	42.4	0.89			Appleton	52	11	35.2	1.53	T.	
Oak City	67	19	38.4	0.12			Huntsville							Appleton Marsh	51	7	33.4	1.32	1.0	
Ogden	59	21	39.6	0.48	3.5		Keanewick	65	19	44.0	0.21			Ashland	55	10	34.9	0.49	0.5	
Park City	60	7	31.2				Kions	68	16	44.2	0.50			Beloit	60	15	38.2		1.0	
Parowan	64	14	39.1	0.32			Kosmos	69	31	45.8	9.34			Brodhead	56	10	36.2	1.38	1.2	
Payson							Lacenter	65	28	44.4	7.28			Burnett	56	11	34.6	2.07	0.3	
Plateau	63	6	34.8	0.77	8.2		Lakeside	60	29	41.2	1.24	2.0		Cecil	53	11	34.0	1.58	T.	
Provo	64	19	37.6	0.30	3.0		Lester	68	30	48.2	8.60	4.0		Chilton	48	12	34.1	1.55	T.	
Ranch	65	11	37.0	0.35	4.0		Mettinger Ranch	69	28	45.9	0.81			Cranden	52	6	30.0	0.20	T.	
Randolph							Mount Pleasant	61	31	47.6	9.33			Delavan	55	10	35.8	1.00	2.0	
Richfield	79 ^b	5 ^b	33.1 ^b	0.32	3.2		Moxee	66	17	41.4	0.46	T.		Dodgeville	52	19 ^c	36.1 ^c	0.79	1.0	
St. George	78	22	49.8	0.00			Northport	54	10	34.9	1.79	5.0		Downing	56	4	32.4	1.00	T.	
Saltair	54	14	33.8	0.52	2.0		Oliga	61	34	46.7	4.46			Ear Claire	56	8	34.2	1.33	3.1	
Scipio	65	9	30.7	0.28	2.0		Olympia	64	31	46.4	10.47			Florence	49	9	29.3	0.82	2.0	
Snowville	66	8	36.8	0.15			Pinehill	61	26	43.0	4.69	T.		Grand Rapids	53	7	33.4	1.11	T.	
Soldier Summit	55 ^d	6 ^d	31.4 ^d	0.30	3.0		Pomeroy	69	21	43.0	0.75			Grand River Locks						
Springdale	79	23	48.9	0.10			Port Townsend	58	37	47.2	1.49			Grantsburg	54	3	31.8	1.00	4.0	
Sunnyside							Pullman	59	21	41.6	1.52			Hancock	50	7	33.0	0.80	T.	
Theodore	64	9	33.4	0.29	3.0		Rattlesnake	59	34	46.6	23.65			Hayward	53 ^e	2 ^d	31.2 ^d	0.75	1.0	
Thistle	68	8	38.6	0.60	6.0		Rex Creek							Hillsboro	54	5	33.1	1.12	1.5	
Tooele	60	22	39.8	0.62			Ritzville							Koepenick	50	1	28.6	0.70	5.0	
Tropic	67 ^b	15 ^b	39.0 ^b	T.	1.		Rock Lake	63 ^b	19 ^b	41.5 ^b	1.67	T.		Lake Mills	52	13	35.0	1.50	1.5	
Trout Creek	65	10	36.0	T.	T.		Rosalia	63	15	40.2	1.75			Lancaster	58	10	35.1	0.68	3.0	
Verdure							Sedro-Woolley	62	28	45.8	7.62			Manitowoc	54	13	36.8	1.45	T.	
Wellington							Sixprong	66	25	45.5	0.50			Mauron	55	9	34.9	1.42	1.0	
Woodruff	66	1	30.6	0.20	4.0		Snohomish	68	29	45.9	5.44			Meadow Valley	56	6	33.0	1.12	0.1	
<i>Vermont.</i>							Snoqualmie	64	31	45.3	7.99			Medford	52	6	31.4	0.80	4.0	
Bloomfield	56	8	32.3	2.42	4.0		South Bend	66	36	50.2				Menasha						
Cavendish							Stebekin	56	25	39.5	5.47	13.0		Merrill	50	5	31.0	0.73	1.5	
Chelsea	53	8	30.6	3.20	5.0		Sunnyside	63	19	42.4	0.19			Minocqua	49	3	29.8	0.75	4.0	
Enosburg Falls	61	24	34.8	2.55	12.5		Twisp	61	12	36.8	1.07	10.8		Mount Horeb	51	8	34.4	1.76	2.0	
Jacksonville	54	14	32.7	6.42	14.0		Vancouver	71	31	47.4	5.77			Neillsville	54	7	32.6	0.70	1.0	
Manchester	58	17	35.9	3.76	3.5		Vashon	60	33	47.4	8.01			New London	50	9	34.2	2.02	T.	
Norwich							Wahluke	63	20	41.8	0.27			New Richmond	54	5	33.1	1.37	1.0	
St. Johnsbury	59	10	33.4	2.47	5.5		Waterville	68	18	37.2	0.76	2.5		Oconto	51	11	34.2	1.70	T.	
Wells	52	16	33.8	3.39	4.0		Wenatchee (near)	59	26	40.6	1.14	2.5		Osceola	56	4	32.6	1.12	T.	
Woodstock	52	6	31.4	3.79	5.0		Westport							Oshkosh	54	14	34.8			
<i>Virginia.</i>							Wilbur	62	22	39.0	1.27	T.		Pine River	51	6	34.1	1.41	0.1	
Arvonia	69	17	45.0	5.00	0.5		Yale	71	32	48.4	15.49			Portage	51	10	35.4	0.85	T.	
Ashland	64	24	46.0	4.44	T.		Zindel	75	28	46.2	0.85			Port Washington	50	18	35.2	1.58	1.0	
Bigstone Gap	67	19	45.2	8.35	2.0		<i>West Virginia.</i>							Prairie du Chien	57	11	37.0	1.28	2.0	
Blacksburg	66	18	41.0	4.97	1.5		Bayard	63	13	46.7	4.82	8.0		Prentice	52	0	29.8	1.09	5.2	
Burkes Garden	61	13	38.2	5.13	2.0		Benton	64	20	41.4	2.50	T.		Racine	56	16	38.2	1.24		
Charlottesville	71	27	46.4	5.69	0.4		Burlington	65	14	41.0	3.48	4.0		Sheboygan	53	10	34.7	1.68	1.5	
Clarksville							Cairo	65	15	41.6	4.21			Spooner	51	3	30.7	0.58	1.0	
Columbia	67	22	45.1	5.88	T.		Central Station	67	13	39.5	3.24			Stanley	52	4	32.3	1.15	3.5	
Culpeper	64	20	43.2	4.57	T.		Charleston	70	22	46.9	3.98			Stevens Point	52	5	32.4	1.18		
Dale Enterprise	66	17	41.4	4.15	2.0															

TABLE II.—*Climatological record of cooperative observers—Continued. Late reports for October, 1907.*

TABLE III.—Wind resultants, from observations at 8 a. m. and 8 p. m., daily, during the month of November, 1907.

Stations,	Component direction from—				Resultant,		Stations,	Component direction from—				Resultant,	
	N.	S.	E.	W.	Direction from—	Duration.		N.	S.	E.	W.	Direction from—	Duration.
<i>New England.</i>													
Eastport, Me.	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.	o	Hours.	Moorhead, Minn.	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.	o	Hours.	
Portland, Me.	13	20	6	29	s. 73 w.	24	Bismarck, N. Dak.	20	23	5	25	s. 81 w.	20
Concord, N. H. †	19	17	7	29	n. 85 w.	22	Devils Lake, N. Dak.	26	16	7	30	n. 67 w.	25
Burlington, Vt. †	16	5	7	9	n. 10 w.	11	Williston, N. Dak.	17	20	6	29	s. 83 w.	23
Northfield, Vt.	8	15	8	6	s. 16 e.	7		18				s. 45 w.	24
Boston, Mass.	18	32	4	15	n. 38 w.	18							
Nantucket, Mass.	16	18	10	28	s. 34 w.	18							
Block Island, R. I.	19	18	18	19	n. 45 w.	1							
Providence, R. I.	21	16	16	22	n. 50 w.	8							
Hartford, Conn.	21	12	11	31	n. 66 w.	22							
New Haven, Conn.	22	21	6	25	n. 87 w.	17							
	29	9	11	21	n. 27 w.	22							
<i>Middle Atlantic States.</i>													
Albany, N. Y.	22	24	7	16	s. 77 w.	9	Minneapolis, Minn. *	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.	o	Hours.	
Binghamton, N. Y. †	5	5	13	12	e. e.	1	St. Paul, Minn.	21	20	11	24	n. 86 w.	13
New York, N. Y.	17	10	15	27	n. 60 w.	14	La Crosse, Wis. †	11	15	2	4	s. 27 w.	4
Harrisburg, Pa.	17	10	14	28	n. 63 w.	16	Madison, Wis.	16	22	9	26	s. 71 w.	18
Philadelphia, Pa.	25	16	13	23	n. 48 w.	14	Charles City, Iowa.	19	19	11	30	w.	19
Scranton, Pa.	19	18	14	22	n. 83 w.	8	Davenport, Iowa.	15	13	10	35	n. 85 w.	25
Atlantic City, N. J.	23	15	10	25	n. 62 w.	17	Des Moines, Iowa.	19	18	9	29	n. 37 w.	20
Cape May, N. J.	25	15	10	19	n. 42 w.	14	Dubuque, Iowa.	22	17	6	29	n. 78 w.	24
Baltimore, Md.	24	8	15	26	n. 34 w.	19	Keokuk, Iowa.	17	16	15	28	n. 86 w.	13
Washington, D. C.	31	8	10	23	n. 29 w.	26	Cairo, Ill.	25	19	10	17	n. 49 w.	9
Lynchburg, Va.	19	16	14	25	n. 75 w.	11	La Salle, Ill. †	6	8	5	16	s. 80 w.	11
Mount Weather, Va.	19	18	15	26	n. 85 w.	11	Peoria, Ill.	20	15	10	26	n. 73 w.	17
Norfolk, Va.	23	20	12	15	n. 45 w.	4	Springfield, Ill.	16	18	12	27	s. 82 w.	15
Richmond, Va.	22	20	12	18	n. 72 w.	6	Hannibal, Mo. †	8	8	4	18	w.	14
Wytheville, Va.	8	9	13	38	s. 88 w.	25	St. Louis, Mo.	21	16	15	23	n. 58 w.	9
<i>South Atlantic States.</i>													
Asheville, N. C.	29	14	14	18	n. 15 w.	16	<i>Missouri Valley.</i>						
Charlotte, N. C.	24	16	18	18	n.	8	Columbia, Mo. *	8	5	8	15	n. 67 w.	8
Hatteras, N. C.	26	12	17	21	n. 16 w.	15	Kansas City, Mo.	18	17	12	26	n. 86 w.	14
Raleigh, N. C.	26	15	11	21	n. 42 w.	15	Springfield, Mo.	20	17	14	19	n. 59 w.	6
Wilmington, N. C.	25	15	14	18	n. 22 w.	11	Iola, Kans. †	11	8	7	13	n. 68 w.	7
Charleston, S. C.	28	13	16	14	n. 8 e.	15	Topeka, Kans. *	12	7	7	10	n. 31 w.	6
Columbia, S. C.	31	11	16	16	n.	20	Lincoln, Nebr.	23	21	10	16	n. 27 w.	13
Augusta, Ga.	25	14	13	23	n. 42 w.	15	Omaha, Nebr.	21	17	6	28	n. 80 w.	22
Savannah, Ga.	27	12	12	19	s. 25 w.	17	Valentine, Nebr.	24	9	5	33	n. 62 w.	32
Jacksonville, Fla.	32	16	12	13	n. 3 w.	16	Huron, S. Dak. †	20	21	9	22	s. 86 w.	13
<i>Florida Peninsula.</i>													
Jupiter, Fla.	18	19	23	13	s. 84 e.	10	Yankton, S. Dak. †	8	4	4	20	n. 76 w.	16
Key West, Fla.	26	9	35	4	n. 61 e.	35							
Tampa, Fla.	28	11	22	13	s. 28 e.	19							
<i>Eastern Gulf States.</i>													
Atlanta, Ga.	28	11	11	26	n. 42 w.	23							
Macon, Ga. †	16	4	7	8	n. 5 w.	12							
Thomasville, Ga.	24	12	13	21	n. 34 w.	14							
Pensacola, Fla. †	20	1	7	5	n. 6 e.	19							
Aniston, Ala.	29	15	16	10	n. 23 e.	15							
Birmingham, Ala.	32	11	12	16	n. 11 w.	21							
Mobile, Ala.	38	8	10	15	n. 9 w.	30							
Montgomery, Ala.	29	13	13	15	n. 7 w.	16							
Meridian, Miss.	32	10	14	18	n. 10 w.	22							
Vicksburg, Miss.	28	10	20	11	n. 27 e.	20							
New Orleans, La.	34	11	21	7	n. 31 e.	27							
<i>Western Gulf States.</i>													
Shreveport, La.	25	14	20	12	n. 36 e.	14							
Bentonville, Ark. †	7	12	7	8	s. 11 w.	5							
Fort Smith, Ark.	19	19	20	17	e. e.	3							
Little Rock, Ark.	18	16	13	24	n. 80 w.	11							
Corpus Christi, Tex.	42	9	17	7	n. 17 e.	34							
Fort Worth, Tex.	18	23	13	20	s. 54 w.	9							
Galveston, Tex.	32	8	20	9	n. 25 e.	26							
Palestine, Tex.	25	16	22	6	n. 61 e.	18							
San Antonio, Tex.	35	8	25	6	n. 35 e.	33							
Taylor, Tex. †	14	8	4	8	n. 34 w.	7							
<i>Ohio Valley and Tennessee.</i>													
Chattanooga, Tenn.	24	17	10	26	n. 66 w.	18							
Knoxville, Tenn.	24	16	16	20	n. 27 w.	9							
Memphis, Tenn.	22	21	11	18	n. 32 w.	13							
Nashville, Tenn.	21	11	11	30	n. 62 w.	22							
Lexington, Ky. †	5	10	5	14	s. 61 w.	10							
Louisville, Ky.	17	20	7	23	s. 83 w.	26							
Evansville, Ind. †	14	5	4	11	n. 38 w.	11							
Indianapolis, Ind.	19	19	12	20	e. w.	8							
Cincinnati, Ohio.	15	16	16	26	s. 84 w.	10							
Columbus, Ohio.	18	20	13	26	s. 81 w.	13							
Pittsburg, Pa.	23	13	11	27	n. 58 w.	19							
Parkersburg, W. Va.	13	19	10	28	s. 72 w.	19							
Elkins, W. Va.	15	17	9	29	s. 84 w.	20							
<i>Lower Lake Region.</i>													
Buffalo, N. Y.	14	20	11	26	s. 68 w.	16							
Canton, N. Y. †	3	10	6	17	s. 58 w.	13							
Owego, N. Y.	14	30	12	17	s. 17 w.	17							
Rochester, N. Y.	9	23	8	33	s. 61 w.	29							
Syracuse, N. Y.	10	30	10</td										

TABLE IV.—Accumulated amounts of precipitation for each 5 minutes, for storms in which the rate of fall equaled or exceeded 0.25 in any 5 minutes, or 0.80 in 1 hour, during November, 1907, at all stations furnished with self-registering gages.

TABLE IV.—Accumulated amounts of precipitation for each 5 minutes, etc.—Continued.

Stations.	Date.	Total duration.		Total amount of precipitation.	Excessive rate.		Amount before excessive began.	Depths of precipitation (in inches) during periods of time indicated.													
		From—	To—		Began—	Ended—		5 min.	10 min.	15 min.	20 min.	25 min.	30 min.	35 min.	40 min.	45 min.	50 min.	60 min.	80 min.	100 min.	120 min.
Philadelphia, Pa.	6			1.04															0.39		
Pittsburg, Pa.	6			0.37															0.15		
Portland, Me.	6			1.36															0.46		
Portland, Oreg.	23-24			1.72															0.37		
Pueblo, Colo.	10	D. N.	10:45 a. m.	0.02	4:16 a. m.	5:16 a. m.	0.05	0.06	0.16	0.23	0.25	0.27	0.30	0.40	0.70	0.95	1.13	1.31			
Raleigh, N. C.	22			0.80															0.30		
Richmond, Va.	2			1.51															0.11		
Rochester, N. Y.	6-7			0.04															*		
Sacramento, Cal.	16			0.22															0.20		
St. Louis, Mo.	27			0.81															0.21		
Salt Lake City, Utah	21			0.23															*		
San Antonio, Tex.	9	11:40 a. m.	3:15 p. m.	1.13	12:08 p. m.	12:31 p. m.	0.01	0.09	0.38	0.59	0.74	0.89	0.94								
San Diego, Cal.	6			0.05															0.22		
Sandusky, Ohio	1-2			1.10															0.22		
San Francisco, Cal.	1			0.02															0.32		
Savannah, Ga.	28-29			1.01															0.33		
Scranton, Pa.	2-3			0.65															0.29		
Seattle, Wash.	23			0.82															0.72		
Shreveport, La.	19-20			3.59															0.08		
Spokane, Wash.	23			0.30															0.37		
Springfield, Ill.	20			1.10															*		
Springfield, Mo.	19-20			1.20															0.29		
Syracuse, N. Y.	6-7			1.05															0.14		
Tampa, Fla.	29	11:36 a. m.	1:27 p. m.	1.17	12:20 p. m.	12:45 p. m.	0.07	0.25	0.52	0.64	0.77	0.92									
Taylor, Tex.	9	9:00 a. m.	12:45 p. m.	0.95	9:22 a. m.	9:37 a. m.	0.02	0.11	0.41	0.55											
Thomasville, Ga.	23	12:15 p. m.	5:50 p. m.	1.30	5:04 p. m.	5:34 p. m.	0.33	0.27	0.47	0.58	0.71	0.83	0.94								
Toledo, Ohio	1-2			1.06															0.11		
Topeka, Kans.	19-20			1.12															*		
Valentine, Nebr.	18-19			0.03															*		
Vicksburg, Miss.	22			1.88															0.34		
Washington, D. C.	2			0.76															0.29		
Wichita, Kans.	19-20			0.79															0.11		
Wytheville, Va.	2			0.64															*		
Yankton, S. Dak.	10			0.01															0.60		
San Juan, P. R.	29-30			0.99																	

* Self-register not working.

† No precipitation during the month.

TABLE V.—Data furnished by the Canadian Meteorological Service, November, 1907.

Stations.	Pressure, in inches.			Temperature.			Precipitation.			Stations.	Pressure, in inches.			Temperature.			Precipitation.				
	Actual, reduced to mean of 24 hours.	Sealevel, reduced to mean of 24 hours.	Departure from normal.	Mean.	Departure from normal.	Mean maximum.	Mean minimum.	Total.	Departure from normal.	Total snowfall.	Actual, reduced to mean of 24 hours.	Sealevel, reduced to mean of 24 hours.	Departure from normal.	Mean.	Departure from normal.	Mean maximum.	Mean minimum.	Total.	Departure from normal.	Total snowfall.	
St. John's, N. F.	In. 30.02	In. 30.06	In. 0.12	37.8	+ 1.3	43.8	31.8	6.16	+ 0.59		Parry Sound, Ont.	In. 29.29	In. 30.00	- .01	35.1	+ 1.0	39.6	26.6	3.79	- 0.58	18.5
Sydney, C. B. I.	30.05	30.09	+ .14	39.5	+ 2.4	46.0	33.0	5.44	0.00	4.0	Port Arthur, Ont.	29.28	30.01	+ .01	28.8	+ 4.8	36.4	21.2	1.05	- 0.28	1.1
Halifax, N. S.	29.96	30.07	+ .06	39.0	+ 1.7	46.2	31.7	6.05	+ 0.39	2.0	Winnipeg, Man.	29.16	30.02	- .02	25.5	+ 7.5	34.7	16.2	0.72	- 0.36	5.5
Grand Manan, N. B.	29.97	30.02	+ .01	40.7	+ 1.8	46.0	35.5	4.71	- 0.91	T.	Minnedosa, Man.	28.14	30.01	- .03	24.9	+ 7.6	34.7	15.1	0.36	- 0.64	3.2
Yarmouth, N. S.	29.98	30.05	+ .03	40.0	+ 0.1	46.1	34.0	5.27	+ 0.71	1.5	Regina, Sask.	27.95			27.2	+ 5.4	40.1	14.4	0.27	- 0.62	2.6
Charlottetown, P. E. I.	30.00	30.04	+ .08	37.4	+ 1.9	42.8	32.1	1.62	- 2.35	0.6	Medicine Hat, Alberta.	27.64	29.95	- .05	37.8	+ 9.9	48.1	26.6	0.01	- 0.91	T.
Chatham, N. B.	30.00	30.02	+ .05	34.6	+ 3.6	42.4	26.8	4.62	+ 0.87	2.2	Swift Current, Sask.	27.40	30.03	+ .01	31.7	+ 8.5	44.1	19.3	0.16	- 0.53	1.6
Father Point, Que.	30.01	30.03	+ .07	31.0	+ 2.1	37.4	24.6	1.63	- 1.48	4.8	Calgary, Alberta.	26.36	29.95	- .03	34.5	+ 8.7	45.7	23.3	0.06	- 0.80	0.8
Quebec, Que.	29.66	30.00	- .02	30.9	+ 1.9	35.7	26.2	3.84	+ 0.08	10.2	Banff, Alberta.	25.35	30.03	+ .07	31.0	+ 2.2	37.4	24.5	1.22	- 1.05	11.1
Montreal, Que.	29.79	30.01	- .02	33.4	+ 1.6	38.2	28.5	3.96	+ 0.22	14.2	Edmonton, Alberta.	27.57	29.90	- .07	33.8	+ 19.9	42.4	25.3	0.11	- 0.47	T.
Rockliffe, Ont.	29.38	30.01	- .06	28.2	- 0.9	35.4	21.1	3.45	+ 0.87	7.0	Prince Albert, Sask.	28.32	29.92	- .11	25.8	+ 10.4	35.7	15.9	0.15	- 0.68	1.1
Ottawa, Ont.	29.74	30.08	+ .06	33.0	+ 1.3	37.7	28.3	4.28	+ 1.74	7.2	Battleford, Sask.	28.16	29.98	- .09	28.8	+ 12.0	38.9	17.7	0.01	- 0.57	T.
Kingston, Ont.	29.72	30.04	.00	36.0	+ 1.0	42.0	30.1	2.17	- 1.07	3.4	Kamloops, B. C.	28.80	30.04	+ .08	41.6	+ 8.2	47.7	35.5	0.57	- 0.39	
Toronto, Ont.	29.63	30.02	- .02	36.9	+ 1.3	42.7	31.2	3.51	+ 0.37	0.9	Victoria, B. C.	29.99	30.09	+ .10	47.4	+ 4.2	51.8	42.8	4.68	- 2.29	
White River, Ont.											Barkerville, B. C.	25.60	29.97	+ .07	28.7	+ 5.1	35.2	22.1	4.04	+ 0.75	8.0
Port Stanley, Ont.	29.40	30.06	+ .01	36.8	0.0	43.6	29.9														

TABLE VI.—Heights of rivers referred to zeros of gages, November, 1907.

Stations.	Distance to mouth of river.	Flood stage on gage.	Highest water.		Lowest water.		Mean stage.	Monthly range.	Stations.	Distance to mouth of river.	Flood stage on gage.	Highest water.		Lowest water.		Mean stage.	Monthly range.
			Height.	Date.	Height.	Date.						Height.	Date.	Height.	Date.		
<i>Republican River.</i> Clay Center, Kans.	Miles. 42	Feet. 18	5.7	29, 30	5.2	1-5	5.4	0.5	<i>Neosho River.—Cont'd.</i> Fort Gibson, Okla.	Miles. 3	Feet. 22	8.9	20-23	8.7	1, 2, 17- 19, 30	8.8	0.2
<i>Smoky Hill-Kansas River.</i> Abilene, Kans.	254	22	0.4	10	0.0	1, 3, 6-8, 12-17 20-23	0.1	0.4	<i>Canadian River.</i> Calvin, Okla.	99	10	3.6	28	2.8	16-19	3.2	0.8
Manhattan, Kans.	160	18	2.9	30	2.5	18	2.7	0.4	<i>Black River.</i> Blackrock, Ark.	67	12	8.1	21	2.2	1	3.5	5.9
Topoka, Kans.	87	21	5.3	1-13, 21, 22	5.1	15-19	5.2	0.2	<i>White River.</i> Calicorock, Ark.	272	18	0.6	21	-0.6	12-17	-0.2	1.2
<i>Missouri River.</i>									<i>White River.</i> Batesville, Ark.	217	18	4.3	20	1.4	15-18	2.0	2.9
Bismarck, N. Dak.	1, 309	14	2.5	8.9	1.2	16	1.9	1.3	<i>Clarendon, Ark.</i> <i>Arkansas River.</i>	75	30	17.3	27	7.3	1, 3-5, 14-17	10.0	10.0
Pierre, S. Dak.	1, 114	14	1.1	1-4	-0.9	24	0.5	2.0	<i>Arkansas River.</i> Wichita, Kans.	832	16	-1.5	1-10	-1.7	13-19, 29, 30	-1.6	0.2
Sioux City, Iowa	784	17	6.5	1-7	5.7	25-30	6.2	0.8	Tulsa, Okla.	551	16	3.8	3	2.7	16-19	3.1	1.1
Blair, Nebr.	705	15	6.0	2	4.7	30	5.5	1.3	Webbers Falls, Okla.	465	23	6.4	27-30	2.0	1	5.1	4.4
Omaha, Nebr.	669	18	8.0	1-3, 8-12	7.0	30	7.8	1.0	Fort Smith, Ark.	403	22	3.2	25	2.0	18-20	2.3	1.2
St. Joseph, Mo.	481	10	1.5	3	0.4	19, 20	0.9	1.1	Dardanelle, Ark.	256	21	2.5	9	1.4	2	2.1	1.1
Kansas City, Mo.	398	21	7.6	4.6	0.5	30	7.1	1.1	Little Rock, Ark.	176	23	7.6	22	2.2	7, 19	3.3	5.4
Glasgow, Mo.	291	18	5.2	2, 4, 8, 12	4.7	23, 27	5.0	0.5	Pine Bluff, Ark.	121	25	10.3	23	4.4	5-8	6.0	5.9
Boonville, Mo.	199	20	8.1	6-8	7.6	19, 22-24, 29, 30	7.8	0.5	<i>Yazoo River.</i> Greenwood, Miss.	175	38	4.7	29, 30	1.7	1	2.8	3.0
Hermann, Mo.	103	24	6.1	8.9	5.6	24, 25	5.8	0.5	Yazoo City, Miss.	80	25	0.9	30	-1.9	6-8	-1.0	2.8
<i>Minnesota River.</i>									<i>Ouachita River.</i> Camden, Ark.	304	39	29.7	25	3.7	16, 17	10.7	26.0
Mankato, Minn.	127	18	3.0	4-6	2.0	1, 16	2.4	1.0	Monroe, La.	122	40	15.2	30	2.4	3-6	5.2	12.8
<i>St. Croix River.</i>									<i>Red River.</i> Denison, Tex.	768	22	5.2	3	1.3	29	2.4	3.9
Stillwater, Minn.	23	11	4.5	0, 10	3.6	1, 2, 28-30	3.9	0.9	Fulton, Ark.	515	28	15.5	24	7.3	1, 6	9.9	8.2
<i>Illinois River.</i>									Shreveport, La.	327	29	8.2	26, 27	-0.3	4-8	2.3	8.5
La Salle, Ill.	197	18	14.6	23-25, 27	13.3	18-20	14.0	1.3	Alexandria, La.	118	33	12.8	30	2.3	11, 12	4.8	10.5
Peoria, Ill.	135	14	10.6	28-30	9.8	21	10.3	0.8	<i>Mississippi River.</i> Fort Ripley, Minn.	2, 082	10	5.4	5	4.4	25, 26, 29, 30	4.8	1.0
<i>Conemaugh River.</i>									St. Paul, Minn.	1, 964	14	4.2	7	2.8	30	3.6	1.4
Johnstown, Pa.	64	7	5.5	7	1.4	1, 2, 28-30	2.5	4.1	Red Wing, Minn.	1, 914	14	2.7	9	1.7	29, 30	2.2	1.0
<i>Allegheny River.</i>									Reeds Landing, Minn.	1, 884	12	2.7	9	1.7	30	2.1	1.0
Warren, Pa.	177	14	4.2	8	0.9	22-28	1.9	3.3	La Crosse, Wis.	1, 819	12	3.6	11, 12	3.0	29, 30	3.3	0.6
Parker, Pa.	73	20	5.8	4, 5	1.5	19, 20, 26-27	2.8	4.3	Prairie du Chien, Wis.	1, 759	18	3.8	9-11, 14-16	3.4	28-30	3.6	0.4
Freeport, Pa.	29	20	10.7	5	3.0	25	5.5	7.7	Dubuque, Iowa.	1, 699	15	4.0	11	3.5	28-30	3.8	0.5
<i>Youghiogheny River.</i>									Leclaire, Iowa.	1, 609	10	2.4	4-6	1.6	27-30	2.0	0.8
Confluence, Pa.	59	10	5.0	7	0.8	2	2.1	4.2	Davenport, Iowa.	1, 593	15	3.8	1	3.4	17, 8, 18-20	3.5	0.4
West Newton, Pa.	15	23	7.1	8	1.4	18	3.0	5.7	Muscatine, Iowa.	1, 562	16	4.4	1-4, 23, 24	4.0	10, 12, 20, 28	4.2	0.4
<i>Monongahela River.</i>									Galland, Iowa.	1, 472	8	1.9	1, 26-30	1.5	10-17	1.7	0.4
Zanesville, Ohio.	70	25	11.0	5	8.0	19, 20	8.6	3.0	Keokuk, Iowa.	1, 463	15	3.2	3	2.7	16	2.9	0.5
<i>Little Kanawha River.</i>									Warsaw, Ill.	1, 458	18	6.3	5	5.7	20-22	5.9	0.6
Creston, W. Va.	38	20	12.2	25	2.8	19	4.3	9.4	Hannibal, Mo.	1, 402	13	3.9	1	3.4	10-14, 20-26	3.5	0.5
<i>New-Great Kanawha River.</i>									Grafton, Ill.	1, 306	23	6.9	1	6.1	15-21, 25	6.3	0.8
Hinton, W. Va.	153	14	5.5	25	1.7	1	2.9	3.8	St. Louis, Mo.	1, 264	30	7.2	1, 2	5.8	14-20, 23	6.2	1.4
Charleston, W. Va.	58	30	12.3	11	4.0	18	7.6	8.3	Chester, Ill.	1, 189	30	6.0	1-3	4.9	27	5.3	1.1
<i>Scioto River.</i>									New Madrid, Mo.	1, 008	34	15.2	21	8.1	2, 3	11.6	7.1
Columbus, Ohio.	110	17	4.8	4	1.8	28-30	2.7	3.0	Luxora, Ark.	905	33	8.0	22	2.6	6	5.1	5.4
<i>Licking River.</i>									Memphis, Tenn.	843	33	12.9	23	6.6	4-7	9.3	6.3
Falmouth, Ky.	36	25	6.0	26	0.5	1	2.8	5.5	Helena, Ark.	767	42	16.0	23, 24	8.9	7.8	12.0	7.1
<i>Kentucky River.</i>									Arkansas City, Ark.	635	42	19.1	25, 26	9.6	7-9	13.4	9.5
Beattyville, Ky.	254	30	6.0	25	0.2	1	1.6	5.8	Greenville, Miss.	595	42	15.1	26	7.5	7-9	10.3	7.6
Frankfort, Ky.	65	31	9.3	26	4.7	1	6.7	4.6	Vicksburg, Miss.	474	45	15.4	28	6.6	9-12	9.7	8.8
<i>Wabash River.</i>									Natchez, Miss.	378	46	17.1	30	8.6	11, 12	11.4	8.5
Mount Carmel, Ill.	75	15	6.0	5	1.8	1	3.9	4.2	Baton Rouge, La.	240	35	11.2	30	4.6	14, 15	6.7	6.6
<i>Cumberland River.</i>									Donaldsonville, La.	188	28	8.0	30	3.5	16	5.0	4.5
Burnside, Ky.	518	50	16.0	25	-0.1	1	5.2	16.1	New Orleans, La.	108	16	5.7	30	3.3	16	4.5	2.4
Celina, Tenn.	383	45	16.8	27	1.2	1	7.3	7.6	<i>Atchafalaya River.</i> Simmesport, La.	127	33	15.0	30	3.5	13, 14	6.7	11.5
Carthage, Tenn.	308	40	13.0	27, 28	0.9	1	6.0	12.1	Melville, La.	103	31	18.8	30	7.6	14	10.9	11.2
Nashville, Tenn.	193	40	17.0	29	7.2	1, 2	11.2	9.8	<i>Hudson River.</i> Troy, N. Y.	154	14	18.0	8	3.9	24, 29	7.2	14.1
Clarksville, Tenn.	126	43	17.4	29	1.6	1	8.7	15.8	Albany, N. Y.	147	12	13.9	8	1.7	29	5.2	12.2
<i>Cinch River.</i>									<i>Delaware River.</i>								
Spears Ferry, Va.	156	20	12.0	11	-0.4	1	2.3	12.4	Hancock (E. Branch), N. Y.	287	12	8.8	7	3.6	28-30	4.7	5.2
Clinton, Tenn.	52	25	21.5	12	3.0	1	9.0	18.5	Hancock (W. Branch), N. Y.	287	10	7.8	8	3.4	29	4.6	4.4
<i>South Fork Holston River.</i>									Port Jervis, N. Y.	215	14	9.0	8	1.7	25, 29	3.1</	

TABLE VI.—Heights of rivers referred to zeros of gages—Continued.

Stations.	Highest water.				Lowest water.				Mean stage. Monthly range.	Stations.	Highest water.				Lowest water.				Mean stage. Monthly range.
	Miles.	Feet.	Feet.	Height.	Date.	Height.	Date.	Feet.			Miles.	Feet.	Feet.	Height.	Date.	Height.	Date.	Feet.	
<i>Ontario-Wateree River.</i>										<i>Pascagoula River.</i>									
Mount Holly, N. C.	143	15	7.0	24	1.8	1-12	2.3	5.2		Merrill, Miss.	78	20	15.7	25	1.3	1	5.2	14.4	
Catawba, S. C.	107	11	9.6	24	1.6	17	3.0	8.0		<i>Pearl River.</i>									
Camden, S. C.	37	14	25.0	25	3.4	18	7.9	21.6		Columbia, Miss.	110	14	10.5	30	3.1	14-17	4.5	7.4	
<i>Ocmulgee River.</i>										<i>Sabine River.</i>									
Columbia, S. C.	52	15	11.5	25	0.0	3,10	2.4	11.5		Logansport, La.	315	25	23.8	25,26	1.2	1	12.2	22.6	
<i>Savannah River.</i>										<i>Neches River.</i>									
Calhoun Falls, S. C.	347	15	7.0	22	2.7	8,9,16,17	3.5	4.3		Beaumont, Tex.	18	10	3.2	28	— 0.8	13	1.7	4.0	
Augusta, Ga.	268	32	22.5	23	5.2	10	9.1	17.3		Dallas, Tex.	320	25	25.6	22	3.6	16	8.6	22.0	
<i>Oconee River.</i>										Long Lake, Tex.	211	35	37.8	27,28	4.6	16	19.9	33.2	
Dublin, Ga.	79	30	10.0	28	— 1.0	1,13	1.8	11.0		Liberty, Tex.	20	25	27.4	30	6.0	16	17.0	21.4	
<i>Ocmulgee River.</i>										<i>Brazos River.</i>									
Macon, Ga.	203	18	15.0	23	0.7	4,5	3.4	14.3		Waco, Tex.	285	22	9.1	20	4.1	4	5.4	5.0	
<i>Flint River.</i>										Hempstead, Tex.	140	40	39.0	24	4.0	16	16.7	35.0	
Montezuma, Ga.	152	20	11.5	26	0.3	1	3.8	11.2		Booth, Tex.	61	39	35.3	24	3.4	1-4	15.7	31.9	
Albany, Ga.	90	20	8.7	28	0.5	1,2	2.7	8.2		<i>Colorado River.</i>									
Bainbridge, Ga.	29	22	10.1	30	2.9	11,12	4.4	7.2		Austin, Tex.	214	18	9.9	19	1.8	5	3.4	8.1	
<i>Chattahoochee River.</i>										Columbus, Tex.	98	24	34.0	21	8.8	5,6	14.6	25.2	
West Point, Ga.	239	20	8.5	24	1.8	1,2,9	3.6	6.7		<i>Red River of the North.</i>									
Eufaula, Ala.	90	40	20.0	24	0.4	2	5.6	19.6		Moorhead, Minn.	284	26	8.2	6,11,21	7.0	13,14	7.9	1.2	
Alaga, Ala.	30	25	19.4	25	1.9	2	6.3	17.5		<i>Snake River.</i>									
<i>Coosa River.</i>										Lewiston, Idaho	144	24	2.4	27	2.0	13-23	2.1	0.4	
Rome, Ga.	266	30	13.5	25	0.7	1,2,9	3.2	12.8		<i>Columbia River.</i>									
Gadsden, Ala.	162	22	13.3	26	0.7	4	3.8	12.6		Wenatchee, Wash.	473	40	7.5	1	5.9	28-30	6.5	1.6	
Lock No. 4, Ala.	113	17	10.3	25	0.6	4,5	3.2	9.7		Umatilla, Oreg.	270	25	3.2	1,2	2.4	22-25	2.7	0.8	
Wetumpka, Ala.	12	45	22.0	25	1.6	1	7.0	20.4		The Dalles, Oreg.	166	40	3.8	2-4	2.6	21-23	3.1	1.2	
<i>Alabama River.</i>										<i>Willamette River.</i>									
Montgomery, Ala.	323	35	20.2	25	0.1	6-8	4.9	20.1		Albany, Oreg.	118	20	10.5	26	0.7	12,13	2.6	9.8	
Seims, Ala.	246	35	24.6	26	0.0	1,2	5.8	24.6		Portland, Oreg.	12	15	8.8	25	1.3	11	3.6	7.5	
<i>Black Warrior River.</i>										<i>Sacramento River.</i>									
Tuscaloosa, Ala.	90	43	17.0	25	5.2	1	7.6	11.8		Red Bluff, Cal.	265	23	1.7	1	0.9	18-17	1.1	0.8	
<i>Tombigbee River.</i>										Colusa, Cal.	156	28	4.5	1	3.6	18-20	3.8	0.9	
Columbus, Miss.	316	33	0.3	26	— 3.1	1	— 2.1	3.4		Knights Landing, Cal.	99	18	3.4	2	2.5	11,16-19	2.7	0.9	
Demopolis, Ala.	168	35	10.4	27	— 2.0	1,2,14	1.3	12.4		Sacramento, Cal.	64	25	8.4	2	7.5	18,21,22	7.8	0.9	

Honolulu, T. H., latitude 21° 19' north, longitude 157° 30' west; barometer above sea, 38 feet; gravity correction, —0.057 inch, applied. November, 1907.

Day.	Pressure.*		Air temperature.				Moisture.		Wind.		Precipitation.		Clouds.				
	8 a. m.	8 p. m.	8 a. m.		8 p. m.		8 a. m.	8 p. m.	8 a. m.		8 p. m.		8 a. m.	8 p. m.			
			Maximum.	Minimum.	Wet.	Relative humidity.			Direction.	Velocity.	Direction.	Velocity.		Amount.	Kind.	Direction.	
1	30.10	30.09	77.0	72.0	80	69	67.5	61	70.0	91	ne.	13	e.	10	0.17	0.05	4 Cu. e.
2	30.13	30.06	76.5	76.0	79	69	67.4	62	66.0	59	ne.	9	ne.	5 Cu.	ne.	10	Few Cu. ne.
3	30.06	30.00	75.5	72.0	79	71	67.0	64	67.0	77	ne.	9	T.	9 Cu.	e.	7 S.	ne.
4	29.97	29.95	75.0	73.5	80	71	67.0	66	67.5	74	ne.	13	w.	3 A.-s.	w.	Few Cu.	ne.
5	29.95	29.93	78.5	71.0	78	69	66.5	69	65.0	72	n.	5	nw.	8 Cu.	sw.	2 S.	ne.
6	29.98	29.95	73.0	69.0	79	65	60.5	48	61.5	65	n.	7	ne.	4 Cu.	sw.	0 0	0 0
7	29.95	29.90	70.4	71.0	76	65	63.0	67	66.0	77	n.	4	n.	12 Cu.	n.	10 S.	n.
8	29.93	29.92	75.0	72.5	80	66	66.5	64	66.0	71	n.	5	ne.	15 Cu.	ne.	Few Cu.	ne.
9	29.96	29.97	75.5	72.5	82	69	66.0	60	67.0	75	w.	2	ne.	3 T.	0.00	4 A.-s.	sw.
10	30.02	30.02	72.0	73.2	79	69	70.0	91	69.2	82	se.	3	s.	2 Cu.	0.35	10 S.	ne.
11	30.04	30.03	79.0	75.0	83	72	69.0	64	70.0	78	se.	3	n.	2 Cu.	0.00	Few A.-s.	sw.
12	30.06	30.02	76.4	74.0	82	69	70.3	74	67.0	69	w.	12	se.	3 Cu.	0.00	Few Cu.	ne.
13	30.06	30.04	75.0	76.0	82	70	70.2	79	67.0	62	w.	2	ne.	14 Cu.	0.00	2 A.-s.	w.
14	30.10	30.09	77.0	74.0	79	73	68.0	63	70.0	82	e.	9	ne.	10 Cu.	0.00	1 Cu.	ne.
15	30.08	30.03	76.0	75.5	80	68	68.0	66	67.0	64	e.	13	ne.	14 Cu.	0.02	4 Cu.	ne.
16	30.07	30.05	76.0	76.0	82	72	68.0	66	67.5	64	e.	4	se.	16 Cu.	0.00	3 Cu.	ne.
17	30.09	30.02	74.4	74.0	80	71	68.1	72	69.0	78	e.	8	ne.	8 Cu.	0.00	9 N.	ne.
18	30.06	30.05	74.7	76.0	79	72	67.4	68	68.0	66	e.	14	ne.	12 Cu.	0.00	6 Cu.	ne.
19	30.05	30.06	75.5	75.0	79	72	68.0	68	68.0	70	e.	16	e.	20 Cu.			

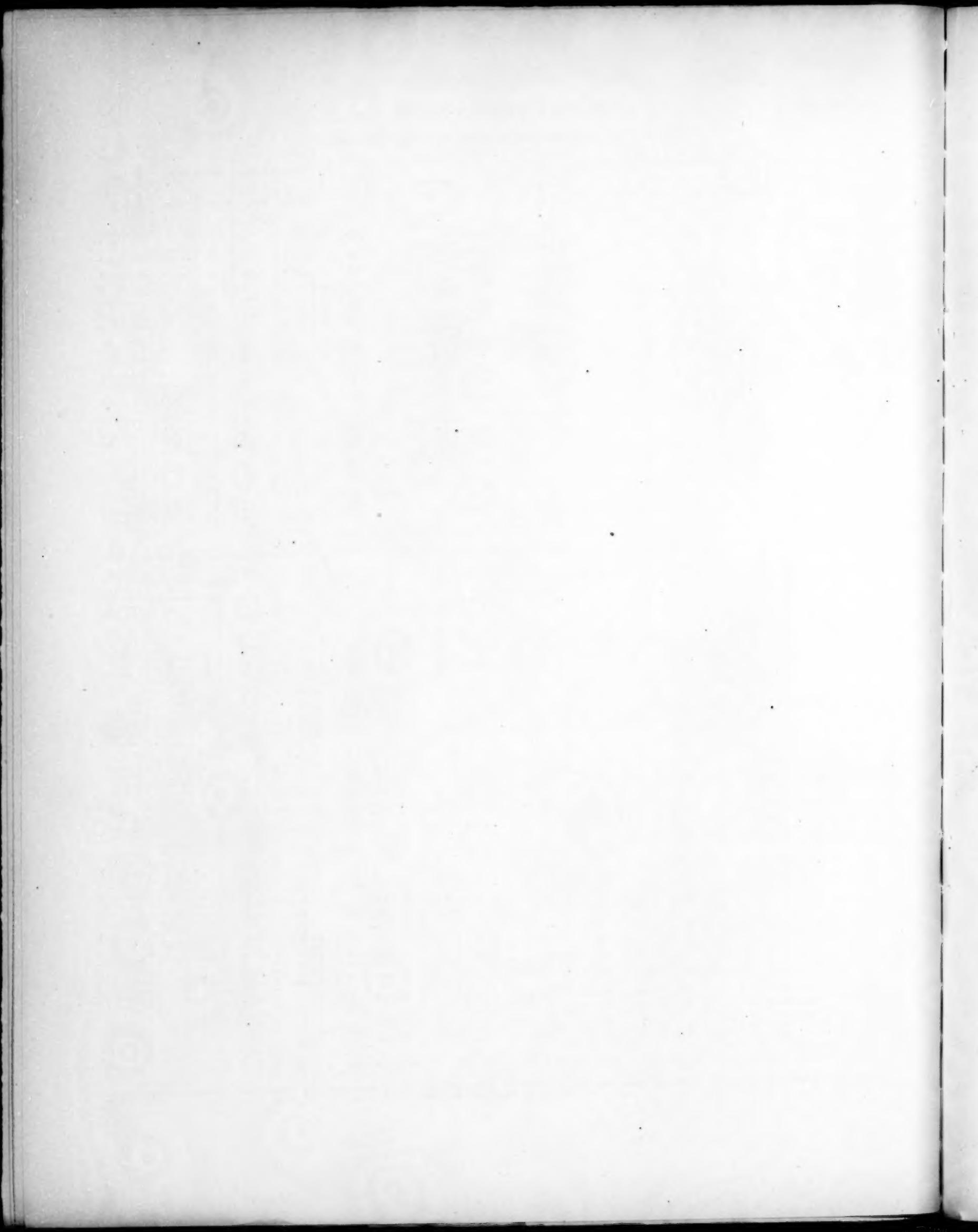


Chart I. Hydrographs for Seven Principal Rivers of the United States, November, 1907.

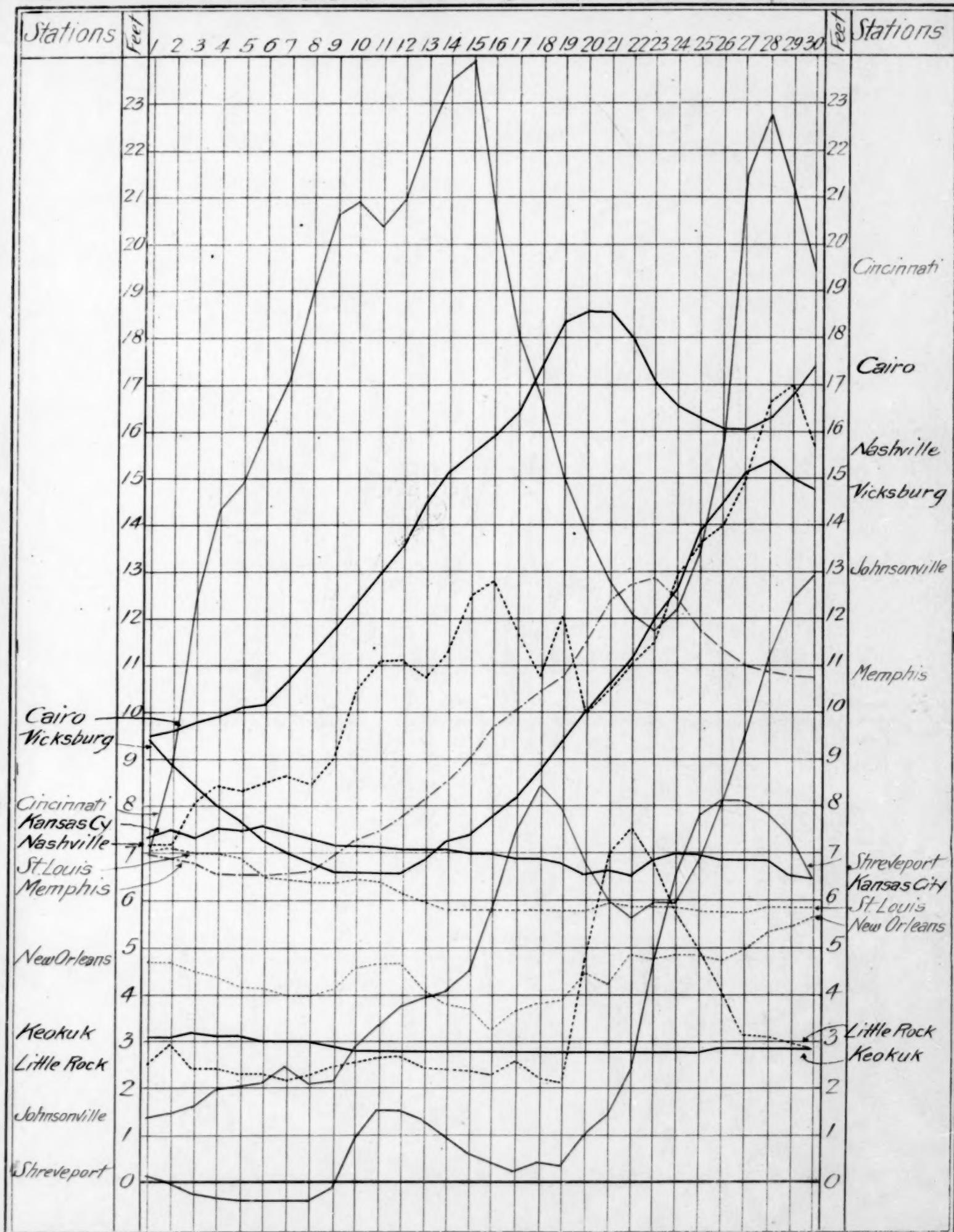


Chart II. Tracks of Centers of High Areas, November, 1907.

• Butlerville



Chart III. Tracks of Centers of Low Pressure November 1907

XXXV-81. II Chart III. Tracks of Centers of Low Areas, November, 1907.

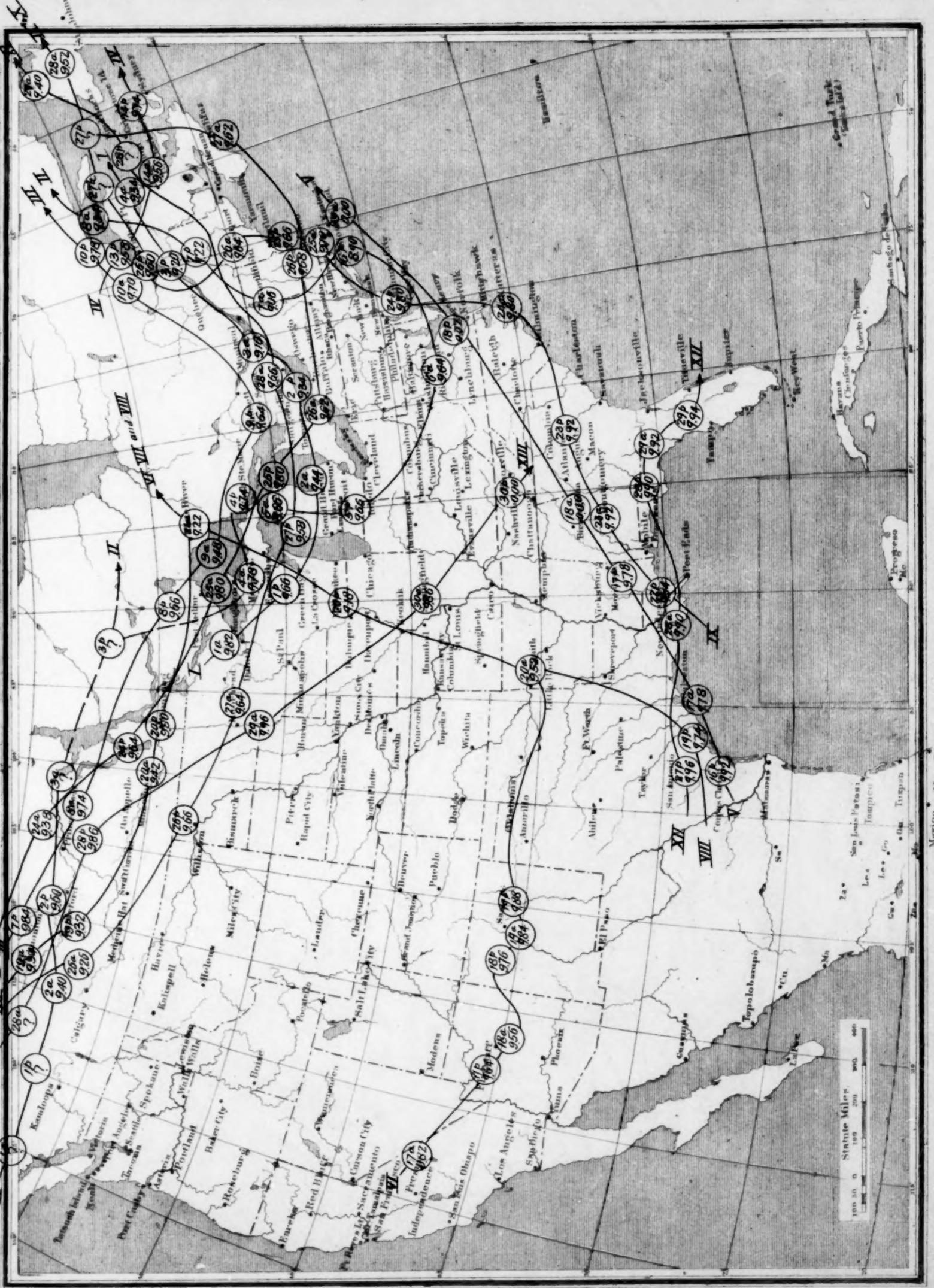
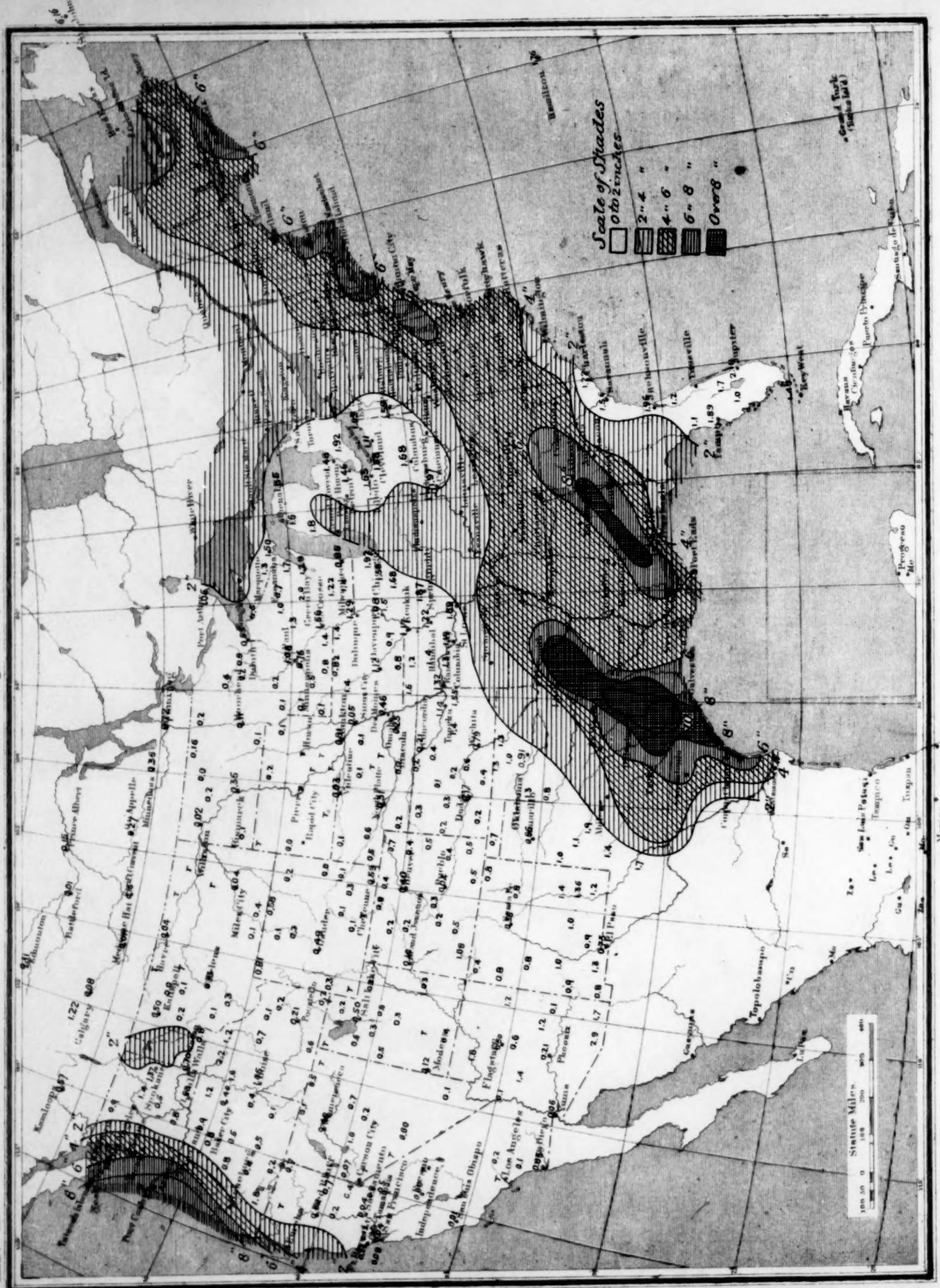


Chart IV. Total Precipitation, November, 1907.

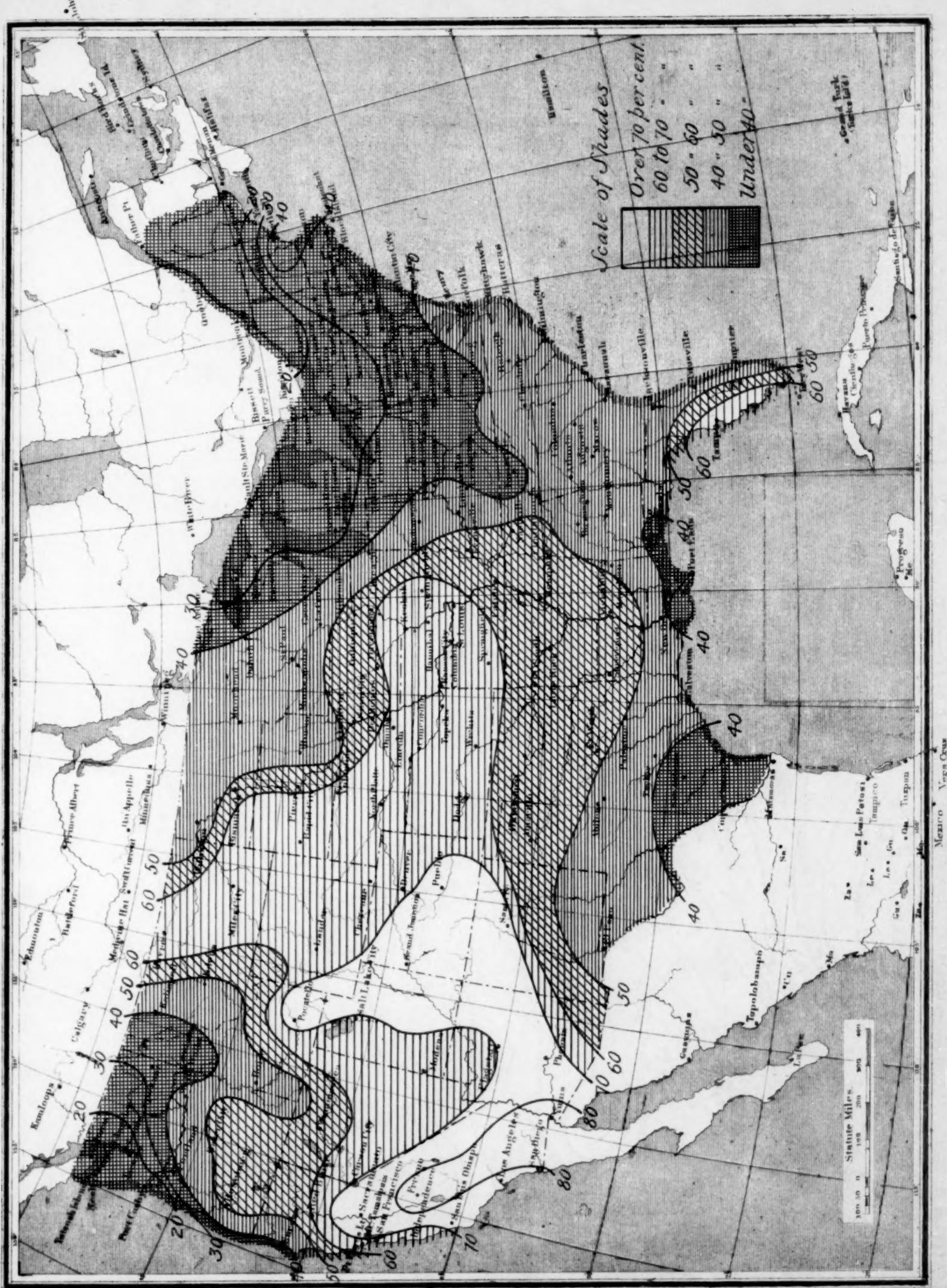
Agincourt

XXXV-82



Barkerville Chart V. Percentage of Clear Sky between Sunrise and Sunset, November, 1907.

10



* Beckville Chart VI. Isobars and Isotherms at Sea Level; Surface Wind Resultants, November, 1907.

XXXV-84.

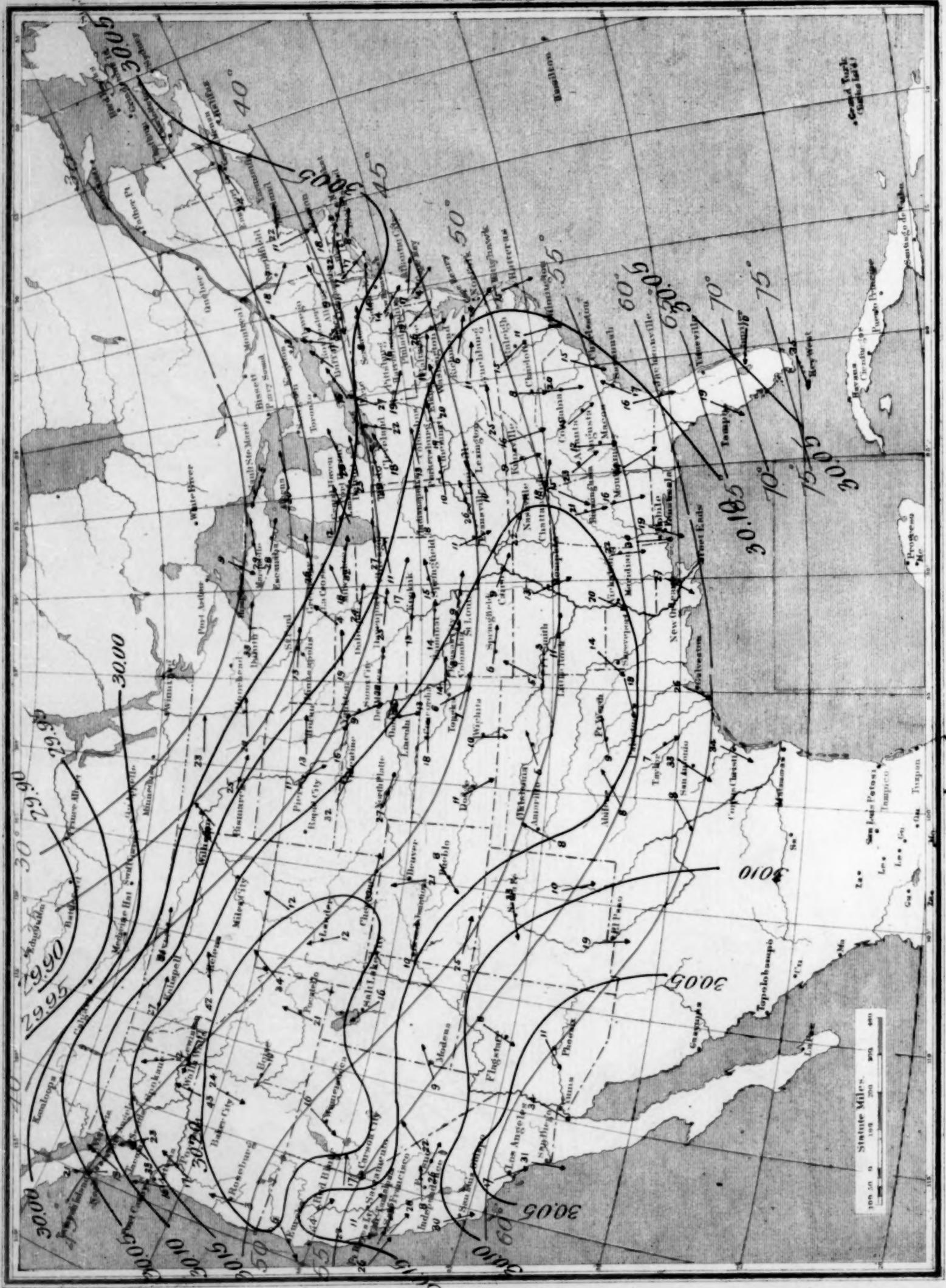


Chart VII. Total Snowfall for November, 1907.

Chart VII. Total Snowfall for November, 1907.

• Barkerville

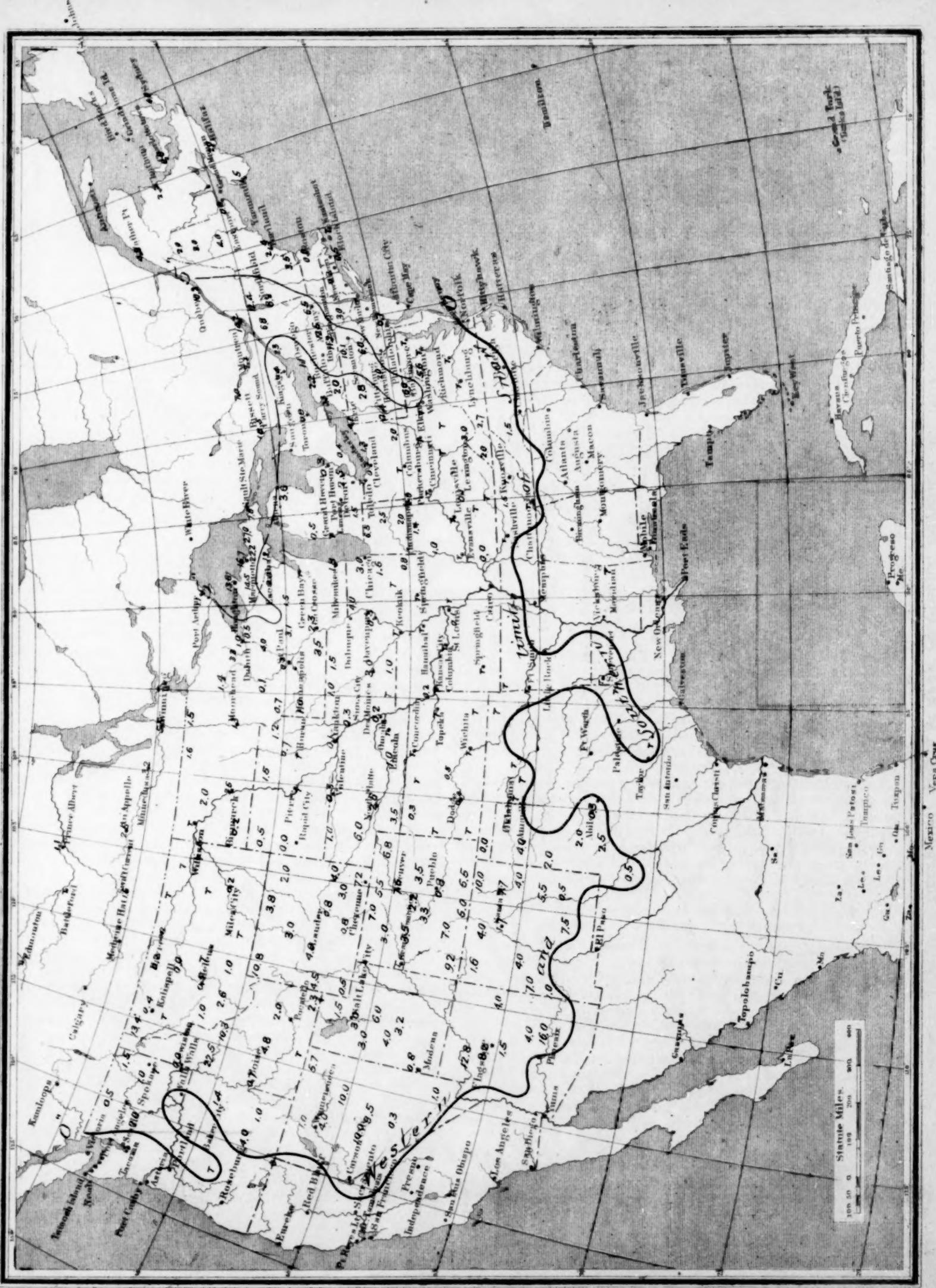


Chart VIII. Depth of Snow on Ground, November 30, 1907.

Parkerville

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